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The Youth Development Center, begun in 1958, consists of scholars who are working together on the problems faced by young people growing up in a city, and who are seeking ways to eliminate or reduce those problems. The Youth Development Center is a research-education-demonstration organization whose research is directed at gaining a better understanding of patterns of growing up and of processes related to delinquent careers. The center realizes that the urban problem of high rates of delinquency is inextricably tied to urban problems of poverty, dependency, and race. Research done during the years 1958-1963 enabled the staff to learn about delinquent behavior, family structure, mobility patterns and family goals, school programs and work opportunities, housing, court procedures, social relationships, personality development, and the meaning of poverty.

During the coming years, the center is hopeful that the evidence available from current studies will be influencing: the location, design and administration of public housing policies; the policies of urban renewal; the structure of school classroom groupings; the focus of educational programs for the culturally deprived and vocationally handicapped; and the organization of lower-class community life.

A selected bibliography of staff writings is presented and sources of financial support for the center are shown.

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THE FIRST FIVE YEARS

YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER | SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

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DIRECTOR | 1961-1962

DR. IRWIN DEUTSCHER
DIRECTOR | 1962-

CENTER ORGANIZATION

The Youth Development Center is headed by a Director, an Associate Director, and a staff of Senior Research Associates. These men and women who direct Center projects are drawn from sociology, psychology, social work, economics, education, home economics, and anthropology. Each holds a teaching appointment in the appropriate academic division of Syracuse University. Working with the senior staff is a team of full-time research associates and assistants, a group of interviewers, coders, and computer programmers, and an administrative and clerical staff.

Within the structure of Syracuse University, the Youth Development Center is responsible to the Vice President for Administration and Research and, through him, to the Chancellor and the Board of Trustees. During its formative years, three consultive committees assisted the Center in mapping its future: a Community Citizens Board representing the area leadership, an Advisory Committee drawn from the staff and boards of local social service agencies and from a number of University departments, and a Deans and Directors Committee composed of the heads of Syracuse University divisions represented on the senior staff.

THE FIRST FIVE YEARS

1958 - 1963

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY | YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER

926 SOUTH CROUSE AVENUE | SYRACUSE, NEW YORK 13210

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THE FIRST FIVE YEARS

A STATEMENT FROM THE DIRECTOR

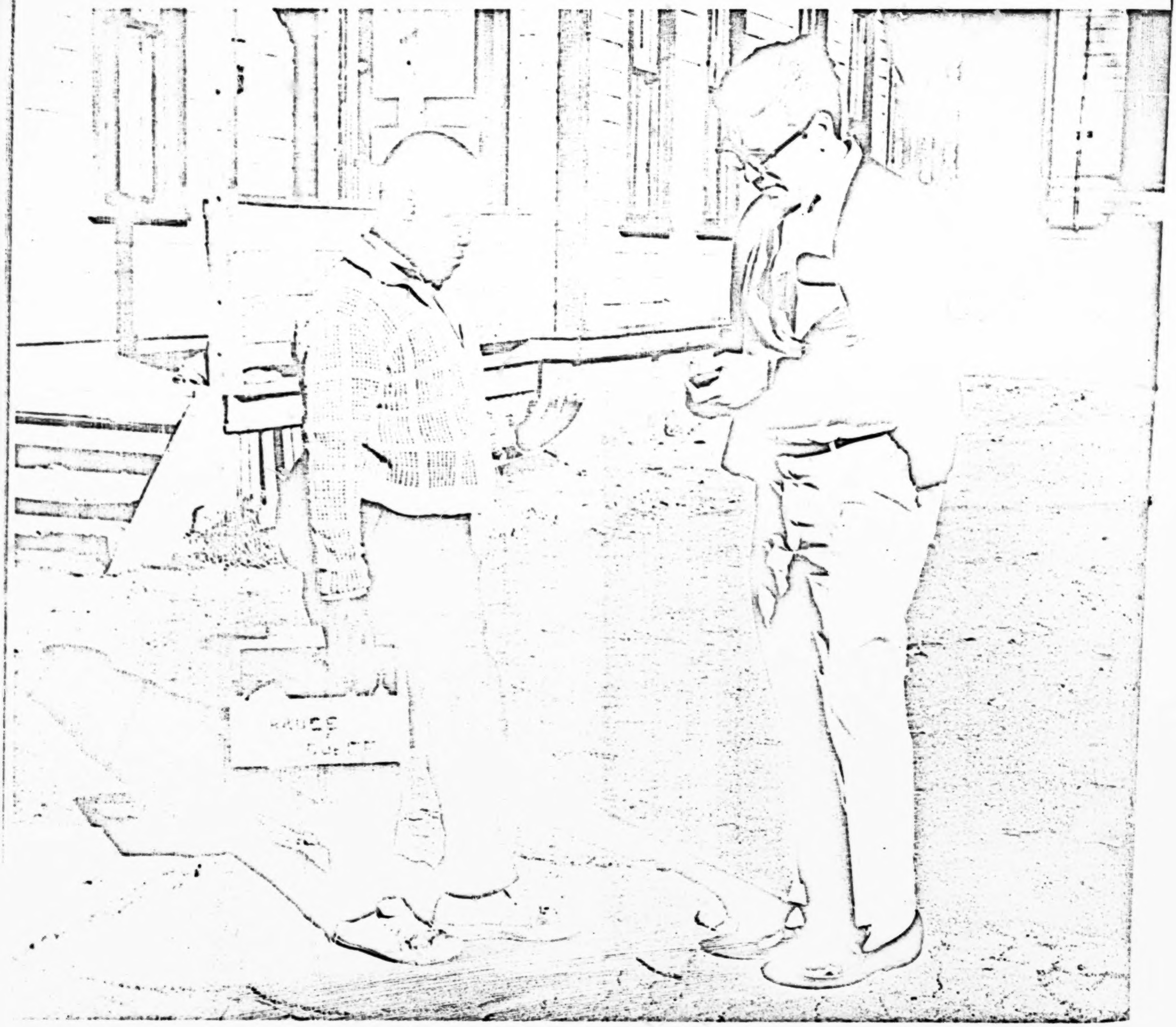
The [illegible] University Youth Development Center opened [illegible] July, 1958. It h[illegible] members, a five-year [illegible] from the Ford Foundation, and a directive to exp[illegible] social ill known as juvenile delinquency. Now, [illegible] years later, the Youth Development Center has a staff of [illegible] second five-year [illegible] from the Ford Foundation, a burgeoning research program, and a collection of [illegible], opinions, and hard data on a variety of youth problems.

In 1963 we are looking not only at [illegible] delinquency but at youth in general and the social worlds in which they grow up. On my [illegible] arrival in 1959 in the h[illegible] unknown (to me) Yankee country, fresh from Kansas and a section of Missouri [illegible] known as "Little Dixie," I scoffed at the suggestion that the Youth Development Center might be concerned to any large degree with problems of race. I recall assuring our Community Citizens Board that race was [illegible] one of many variables that might enter into our search for understanding of the process of growing up in the city. By 1963 we have come to realize that the urban problem of high rates of delinquency is inextricably tied to the urban problems of poverty, dependency, and race.

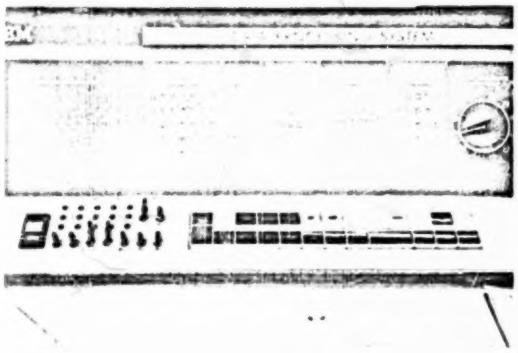
In 1963 our financial support comes not only from the Ford Foundation but from the New York State Division for Youth, the National Institute of Mental Health, the National Science Foundation, the Syracuse Mayor's Commission for Youth, the United States Social Security Administration, and from an annual budget supplement made by Syracuse University.

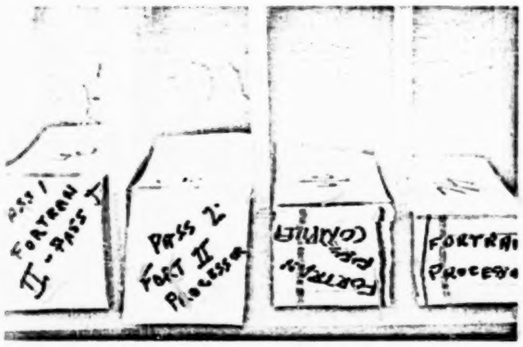
The following pages provide a sketch of the Center's work from 1958 through 1963. Here, under ten topical headings, the reader will find reports on all of the research, demonstration, and training programs that have been completed, are currently underway, and are contemplated for the near future. The findings to date, the educated hunches, and even some of the speculations are set down for the perusal of our community associates, our academic colleagues, and all of those persons who share our interest in the world of youth. What remains to be done is to give some picture of how the Center came to be what it is, and why it developed along particular lines.

First, an answer to our most frequently asked question, "Exactly what *is* the Youth



". . . our staff view the problems of growing up as lying in the social world which surrounds certain categories of young people."





". . . collecting information, assessing information, and communicating information."

Development Center; what do you *do?*" The Center is a collection of scholars, men and women from many disciplines, who have come together in one particular place, at one particular point in time, to focus all of their attention on the problems faced by young people growing up in the city, and to seek ways to eliminate or reduce those problems. How is this done? By thinking, by poking and probing, by going out in the street and asking questions, by comparing, by evaluating, by trying out ideas to see if they work, by observing, by listening, and, once in a while, by being a general nuisance. You will find in these pages many references to specific methodological terms—cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, participant observation, comparative analyses, demographic studies, systems analyses. These are all referents for the researcher's primary tasks: collecting information, assessing information, and communicating information. This is what we try to do at the Youth Development Center.

To do this in a meaningful way, however, one must have a goal and a stance. Even a casual look at this report's table of·contents shows that the Center's original goal—to explore juvenile delinquency—has expanded over the past five years. This expansion in program goal is partly due to stance, or working philosophy, or, as the staff expresses it, to the Center's research orientation.

Often, in establishing a new organization, one begins by determining what the organization will *not* be. So, at the outset of our operations, the staff decided that the Youth Development Center would *not* be a super social agency, or a charitable institution distributing largess, or a library for quiet contemplation. Rather, it would be a research-education-and-demonstration organization, a place where basic research into human behavior could be combined, when needed and desired, with experimental programs. In the same manner, a number of fields of interest were placed outside the Center's main focus. In looking at juvenile delinquency and deviant behavior, we were not primarily interested in the psychotic child or the physically handicapped or the mentally retarded. We were not primarily interested in treatment programs and facilities and techniques. We were not primarily interested in a "cure" for delinquency.

What, then, is the Center's main focus? Briefly, our research is directed at gaining a better understanding of the patterns of growing up, and of the processes feeding into delinquent careers. "Growing up," as we see it, is a sequence of situations, experiences, choices, and decisions that form patterns of development. Some of these patterns are acceptable to society; some are not. In order to understand the unacceptable, or deviant, patterns, we need to know more about the acceptable patterns of growth. When these "normal" processes are understood, we can begin to identify the points at which deviant careers start and the processes by which they develop. Once this identification is made, then it should be possible to intervene, deflecting deviant behavior into more acceptable channels.

Given this social-psychological framework, it follows that Center research encompasses both "bad kids" and "good kids." Further, it looks at the transition from child to adolescent to adult, which means focusing on people at various points in time and through time. Having learned that the greatest amount of delinquent behavior is exhibited by youngsters who live in the most poverty-stricken areas of the city, we have gradually directed much of our research toward the urban poor. We know, too, that growing up does not take place in a vacuum; a variety of institutions and social systems impinge upon the socialization process. Consequently, some Center studies concentrate on the family, the school, the neighborhood, and the world of work. Although the Center is not committed to any one "school" or "theory" or "grand design," most of our staff view the problems of growing up as lying in the social world which surrounds certain categories of young people, rather than lying in the heads of individual young people.

Social science research in a multi-discipline setting requires a special type of person and a special type of community attitude. We have been fortunate in both respects. Syracuse University's Vice Chancellor Emeritus, Dr. Finla G. Crawford, was the driving force behind the Center's inception. Others may claim the title of founding father (one of my first impressions of Syracuse was of the small army of individuals each insisting that he was the person who had really brought the Center into existence), but to the detached observer Finla Crawford is the man who literally created a Youth Development Center. As the organization's first Director, he welded into a new entity a highly varied collection of skills and orientations and established a working network of university and community support. Now in active retirement, Dr. Crawford continues to serve the Center well as our Advisory Counsel.

His successor as Director, Dr. Kenneth W. Kindelsperger, is the man most responsible for the Center's vitality and diversity in program development. Highly respected by the university administration, by the academic departments, and by local community leaders, Dr. Kindelsperger's energy and ability were spurs to Center growth. Working with him as Director of Research, I found him extremely receptive to new ideas and innovations, a man willing to take chances and to gamble on slim leads developing into profitable relationships. It was under his leadership that the Center's research and service programs took their first successful steps into the community. His departure in 1962 to become Dean of the Kent School of Social Work at the University of Louisville was eased by the very nature of the organization he had built at Syracuse.

The present Center administration has concentrated on expanding the financial and program base established earlier while developing the Center's particular "flavor"—the rigorous mutual criticism, the healthy respect for varying opinions, the sense of team commitment without being smothered in teamwork. During its five-year history, the Center has been host to a number of site visits by representatives of fund-granting agencies. Subsequent reports have invariably made favorable mention of Center "atmosphere." This "atmosphere" didn't happen by chance; it was created consciously and deliberately and with no small effort.

". . . by poking and probing, by asking questions, by comparing, by observing, by listening."

The Youth Development Center's place as a member of the Syracuse University community has been assured by the continuing support of Chancellor William P. Tolley. We are indebted to Dr. Tolley not only for his own personal interest in Center goals and programs, but also for designating University Vice President Clark D. Ahlberg as the Center's efficient and understanding liaison with university administration.

If the Center has been fortunate in the quality and temper of its staff, it has been equally fortunate in relationships with its home community. The majority of our research and demonstration programs could not operate without the tolerance, the acceptance, the cooperation, and the good will of the people of Syracuse. Doors are opened, information is freely given, and courtesies above and beyond the routine

Without the Youth Development Center, the President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime would be forced to look harder and longer for some of its chief manpower resources; the New York and Boston programs would be without two of the major consultants they now depend on; the Washington and Syracuse projects would have no research directors. All have turned to the Center as a central source of supply. In addition, schools and colleges and government agencies and social service programs across the nation and in several foreign countries would be minus some 25 staff members who received their training as graduate assistants at the Center.

One of the far-reaching consequences in establishing the Youth Development Center has been the concentration of manpower resources in one place, and the focusing of previously diverse areas of interest on a common set of problems. The Center has attracted and sponsored social scientists of great promise who, before joining the staff, were engaged in such activities as studying patient-nurse relationships, teaching demography to medical students, administering an undergraduate college program, and directing a council of social agencies. Today their voices are heard and their influence is felt because they have the opportunity to do research, to travel, to write and publish, and to speak. They have the time, the funds, the supporting technical personnel, and the colleague structure necessary to optimize their own skills and talents. Who can say how many worthwhile *ideas* would not have germinated without a Youth Development Center?

The impact of Center research efforts is yet to be felt. Over the next five years the solid, empirical evidence coming from current studies should be influencing the location, design, and administration of public housing projects; the policies of urban renewal and relocation programs; the structure of school classroom groupings; the focus of educational programs for the culturally deprived and the vocationally handicapped; and the organization of lower-class community life. We should have better, more reliable ways of measuring delinquency and predicting potential trouble spots. We will know much more about effective program planning for social service agencies working with delinquent youth, and about youth programs in general.

Although we can provide a picture of what we think we have accomplished during the past five years, it would be wiser to leave the matter of "accomplishments" to the judgment of history. Given the perspective of time, we will be able to look back and more accurately determine early Center achievements. With this in mind, we present in the following pages the groundwork, the effort, and the findings of the Center's first five years as a documentary of current activities and as the backdrop for the future.

IRWIN DEUTSCHER
DIRECTOR

requirements are amply extended. This support is especially noteworthy when one considers the Center's increasing involvement with the community's most sensitive issues. In the course of our social action research, some Center staff members have marched in picket lines, spent time in jail, lambasted slum landlords, and generally fought city hall. At the same time, other staff members are taking part in community planning and policy meetings, working with law enforcement agencies, and conferring with city hall. That such divergent activities can be encompassed within one locale is a tribute to the community's patience, understanding, and concern for social problems. We are indeed grateful.

The Youth Development Center, we noted earlier, began work in July, 1958. By September of that year we had received our first queries on "What have you learned? What are your results?" Because delinquency and youth problems are of such paramount concern to so many people, it is not surprising that there is a demand for immediate answers. Inevitably, those citizens who supposed that the Center would come up with *the answers* to the city's problems in one year or five years or ten years were doomed to disappointment. To carefully plan research takes many months; to follow through on the research design may take years—and many Center studies are three, four, and five-year projects.

Given all of these qualifications, staff members have learned a great deal about delinquent behavior, about family structure, about mobility patterns and family goals, about school programs and work opportunities, about housing, about court procedures and law enforcement problems, about institutional settings, about social relationships, about personality development, and about what it means to be poor. All of this is reported in subsequent pages.

Those readers who are also fans of the late, late television movie may remember an early Jimmy Stewart picture in which Jimmy was his usual kindly, helpful self, a quiet and amiable mainstay of his hometown. One night in a pique of disappointment he wished he had never been born. His wish was granted, and the rest of the picture was devoted to showing what a different place his town would be without his subtle and seemingly insignificant influences. Perhaps we can look at the Center in a similar way —how would the world be different if it had not been born?

Syracuse would probably not have a Madison Area Project and, among other things, the local Board of Education would be deprived of what is now its major professional resource for breaking *de facto* segregation. There would probably not be a Mayor's Commission for Youth, and thus little of the broad public involvement in social problems that is developing in the community. There would probably be no county-wide Central Registry of Juvenile Offenders to aid law enforcement agencies in Syracuse or in other cities that made inquiries about the Registry. There would have been no seminars for state, county, and local police for the past three years. The Syracuse Housing Authority would not have the experience with social service programs that it derived from the nationally-known Family Consultant Service.

Without the Youth Development Center, Syracuse University would be deprived of a unique training resource for graduate students, several of its academic departments would be without valued staff members, and it would have over one million dollars less in research grants.

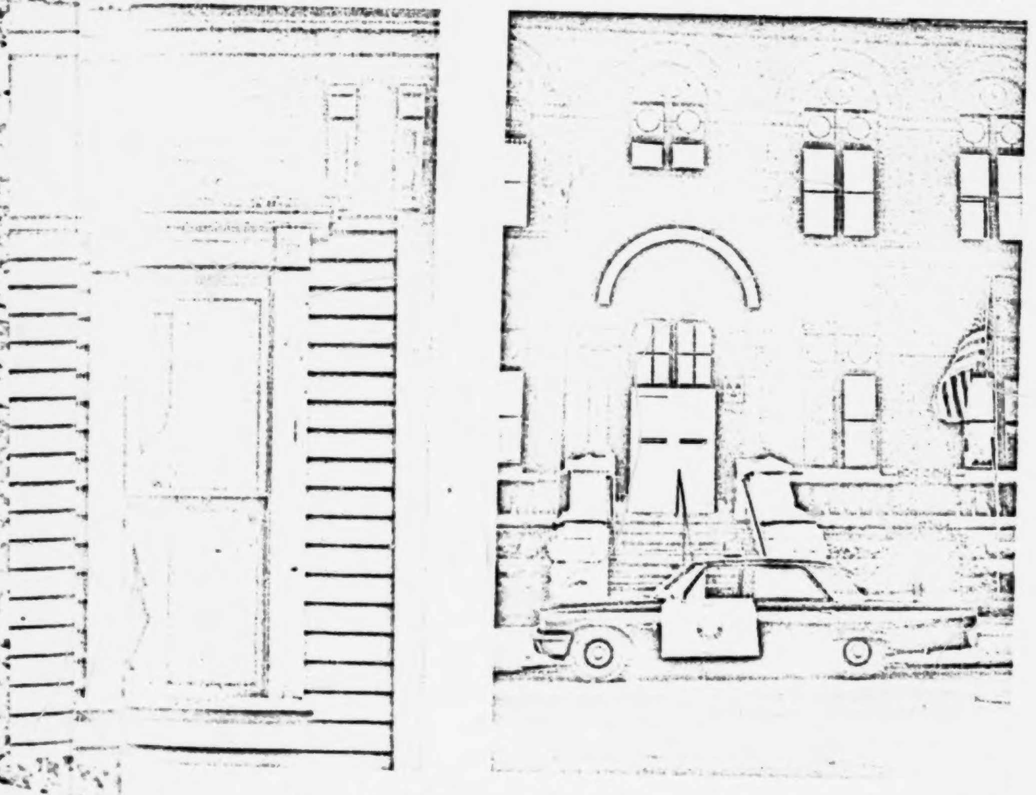
YOUTH PROBLEMS: THE LEGAL SETTING

DELINQUENCY PROFILE

One of the first research tasks undertaken by the Youth Development Center was to discover the amount and location of juvenile delinquency in Syracuse and Onondaga County. Without this information, programs aimed at the laudable targets of "reducing delinquency" or "working with troublesome youngsters" might be little more than misdirected good intentions.

How much delinquency did this community have? Who was getting into what kinds of trouble? Where was this trouble occurring? Once a youngster started through the legal process, what happened to him (or her)?

A considerable effort had already been made to define and report the delinquency picture in the Syracuse metropolitan area. The Syracuse Police Youth Bureau, the Onondaga County Children's Court, and the Youth Bureau of the Onondaga County Sheriff's Office each issued annual reports, widely circulated and widely used by local planning agencies. Yet, even when taken together, these reports left serious gaps in our knowledge. Uncounted and unanalyzed, for instance, were the juvenile contacts made by the town and village police units in Onondaga County, by the New York State Police substations, and by a variety of store, security, and railroad police.



In the fall of 1958, Center staff members began an inventory of official delinquency in the city and county for the years 1957 and 1958. The major purpose of this effort was to determine the number of children apprehended, detained, or adjudicated by local law enforcement and court agencies, the types of offenses committed, and the geographical distribution of delinquent activity.

The first report of the Center's data-collection effort was issued in 1960 under the title *A Delinquency Profile of Syracuse and Onondaga County, N.Y., 1957-1958*. The author, Professor Robert H. Hardt, has continued to direct the Delinquency Profile studies each year, with the assistance of research associate George E. Bodine.

The Profiles give the first consistent, standardized picture available of officially-[illegible] delinquent activity for the entire county area. They provide a baseline for measuring trends in delinquency statistics, help in pinpointing areas needing community attention, and aid in the evaluation of projects attempting to combat juvenile crime. The Mayor's Commission for Youth, for example, turned to the Profile studies in selecting target areas for demonstration programs to reduce delinquency.

From the first, local adjudication and apprehension agencies have given the fullest cooperation to this research, providing confidential access to juvenile records. Data was initially collected through an agency-by-agency census. Since October, 1960, the Central Registry of Juvenile Offenders has provided a common clearing house of delinquency information. Participating agencies now include the Onondaga County Family Court, Syracuse Police Youth Bureau, Onondaga County Sheriff's Office Youth Bureau, New York State Police substations, New York Central Railroad Police, and town and village police units.

In interpreting the delinquency picture in Onondaga County over the past six years, some limitations and definitions should be kept in mind. First, the Delinquency Profile study is *descriptive* research. It codifies certain information about children who come in contact with police and court agencies; it does not attempt to analyze how and why these contacts occur.

Second, the Profile's use of the term "delinquent" differs from its use in legal terminology. Under New York State law, a "juvenile delinquent" is a juvenile aged seven through fifteen who is *adjudicated* a delinquent by a children's court. In our Delinquency Profile research, however, "delinquent" refers to a juvenile, aged seven through fifteen, who has been *apprehended* for committing (1) a crime, (2) an ordinance violation, or (3) a legally-defined delinquent act, such as habitual truancy or repeatedly running away from home. Excluded from Profile studies are children in contact with police or court agencies only for questioning, as witnesses, or because of parental neglect.

With six years of statistics on official delinquency now in hand, what can we say about our local situation?

The delinquency rate for all of Onondaga County has varied between a low of 17.8 delinquents per 1,000 juveniles to a high of 21.9 per 1,000. The years 1959 and 1961 were "low" time periods, when the rate was under 19 per 1,000; 1957, 1958, 1960, and 1962 were "high," with the rate above 21 per 1,000. These fluctuations can be accounted for by increases and decreases in the number of first offenders apprehended for relatively minor offenses. The proportion of repeating offenders—those juveniles who represent our most serious delinquency problem—appears to remain fairly stable. In other words, delinquency during a high-rate year is not necessarily a greater problem than during a low-rate year. High-rate years have a high proportion of apprehensions for less serious offenses, and this fluctuation may, in turn, reflect fluctuations in community attitudes and police practices. A snowball through a window may bring forth an irate homeowner, or an irate homeowner *and* a policeman.

The past six years have also added to our knowledge about the characteristics of juvenile delinquents. We know, for example, that more than two-thirds of all delinquents are first offenders, that 40 per cent of all delinquents are 14 and 15 years old, and that boy delinquents are nearly five times more numerous than girl delinquents. Nearly half of all offenders have one or two companions in their delinquent activities, though girls are more inclined to be "loners."

PROFESSOR ROBERT H. HARDT

We know, too, that there are striking area variations in delinquency. The rate for the city of Syracuse, for example, is nearly three times that for the rest of Onondaga County. In addition, Syracuse has more repeating offenders. Certain higher income sections of Syracuse, however, have rates as low as the rest-of-county area. As might be expected, the areas with the highest rates of delinquents are the central city, low-income sections of Syracuse. In some of these areas, over 10 per cent of the juveniles have police contacts in a given year. Even more striking is the evidence that nearly half of all boys living in the city's low-income areas will have a police contact by age 16.

When delinquency occurs, what form does it take? Usually it appears as a conduct offense, with the subcategory of malicious behavior (trespassing, throwing stones, snowballs or other objects, harming animals, damaging property) leading the list. Discipline problems come next, followed by improper conduct and aggressive acts. These categories of conduct offenses accounted for 65 per cent of all delinquent acts in Onondaga County during 1962. Theft offenses stood at 31 per cent, with the majority composed of such acts as rifling of parking meters, shoplifting, and petit larceny. The more serious theft offenses—burglary, auto theft, and grand larceny—comprised 10 per cent of the delinquent activity in the county as a whole.

Again, there are variations to this pattern. Delinquent boys living in Syracuse commit more theft offenses than conduct offenses. Girls are most frequently charged with offenses involving disciplinary problems. First offenders usually commit less serious offenses than those juveniles who have been in trouble before.

What happens to a youngster following his apprehension? If he is a first offender, no matter what his age, the case will probably be disposed of by police. This happened in 71 per cent of the 1962 cases. If the juvenile is a repeater, however, chances are good that he will be sent to Family Court; 62 per cent of all repeating offenders in 1962 became court cases.

When a case reaches court, disposition is now linked to the age and previous arrest status of the juvenile. Of the 13-15 year-old repeating offenders adjudicated in 1962, 26 per cent were placed on probation and 11 per cent were committed to an institution. Of first offenders in this same age category who became court cases in 1962, 13 per cent were placed on probation and 1 per cent were institutionalized.

These figures reinforce the notion of "case-sifting," a selective procedure that occurs at various points in the legal process and which contributes to a general feeling of uneasiness when citing delinquency statistics. Professor Hardt points out that the scope of juvenile behavior which falls within the legal definition of delinquency is extremely broad. How frequently must a child defy his parents before being classified as ungovernable? Is the occasional truant a delinquent? Is property damage resulting from careless play a delinquent act? Given specific instances of such conduct, one would probably find considerable disagreement among parents, school officials, police and judges, as to the seriousness of the offense and how it should be handled.

Even when there is general agreement about classifying an act as delinquent, a number of steps intervene before the delinquency may be recorded. Take shoplifting, for example. To what extent are (1) such acts detected, (2) complaints made about detected acts, (3) apprehensions made as a result of complaints, and (4) police records established as a result of such apprehensions? After a delinquency is recorded, police must decide on their disposition of the case, which may depend upon the willingness of the complainant to file a petition. If the child is referred to court, a number of courses of action are open to the judge.

Thus, researchers and consumers of delinquency data are faced with two major limitations. First, there is no precise way of knowing what and how much "sifting" takes place inside and outside of the legal process. Second, we have little knowledge of how selective this procedure may be in regard to the characteristics of age, sex, race, and area of residence. Studies such as the Delinquency Profile become more valuable as they continue through time, systematically gathering information for long-term trend analyses and presenting to program planners a more reliable basis for action.

CENTRAL REGISTRY OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS

Youth Development Center researchers assembling material for the first Delinquency Profile soon came face-to-face with an awkward fact of life. Nineteen independent police units operate within Onondaga County. In 1958, when the Profile studies began, collecting data on a particular boy or girl could involve calls to all of these units.

asking each to check its records. No common pool of information was quickly and easily available.

The lack of such a pool created two problems. Of first concern to Center researchers was the difference in reporting procedures followed by the different agencies. These procedural variations made it difficult to collect the same type and amount of information from each agency. This, in turn, hampered efforts to develop any reliable, comprehensive baselines useful in measuring delinquency trends.

Of first concern to the police, on the other hand, was the difficulty in obtaining adequate information on an increasingly mobile teenage population, information they could well put to use in handling a variety of youth problems. Center staff members who were working at the police units collecting data, sharing patrol car rides, and generally becoming acquainted with police practices heard stories such as this, related by a police sergeant: "I picked up this youngster one night a couple of months ago over in the vacant lot by the old tool company building. The building's been vacant a long time and we've had some trouble with vandalism. This boy looked like he was building himself a small bonfire pretty close to the building, though he gave me a story about dropping some change when he was running through the lot and gathering up all this trash while he was looking for the money. Well, we had a little talk and then I drove him home—about three miles out of town—and had another talk with his folks. Several weeks later there was a lumberyard fire over at North Syracuse and this youngster confessed to setting it. It turned out that this boy just loved to set fires and had been hopping all over the place trying his hand. Now, the tragic part is, we had picked him up—and so had four other police units. Each one of us thought it was a first offense and we each let him off with a warning. Looking back on it now, it's easy to say, 'You should have checked with each other.' But do you know what that *involves?* There ought to be one central place we could call to find out if a youngster is known to any of the other units. That information could make quite a difference in how we handle a case."

After a series of planning meetings called by the Center and involving 25 local agencies, the "one central place to call" came into existence on October 3, 1960. Known as the Central Registry of Juvenile Offenders, this up-to-date, confidential file contains identifying information about each juvenile who comes in contact with a law enforcement agency in Onondaga County. The Registry is sponsored by the Youth Development Center, the Onondaga County Probation Department, and the Onondaga County Youth Board, an agency of county government that had been interested in the Registry idea for several years. Supervision is by the Onondaga County Family Court. An Advisory Committee, drawn from local law enforcement agencies, assists the sponsors in formulating policy and practices.

The purpose of the Registry is three-fold. First, by providing police with pertinent information on a known juvenile, it aids in the effective disposition of cases. Second, it promotes a uniform system of record keeping throughout the county, making it possible to receive comparable data from all agencies. Third, the Registry files now provide the raw data for the Center's Delinquency Profile study, giving research and planning agencies a comprehensive annual picture of delinquency in Syracuse and Onondaga County.

The Central Registry is located in the juvenile section of the County Probation Department, where a registry clerk is on duty from 9 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. each weekday. Information in the Registry is available only to law enforcement and adjudicating agencies, though limited access may be granted to approved research agencies. Details of Registry procedures may be found in the Center report *The Central Registry: An Index o Juveniles Who Have Contact with Law Enforcement Agencies,* by Dr. Lee J. Cary an Professor Robert H. Hardt.

Funds for the Central Registry's first year of operation were provided by the Youth Development Center. Since that time the service budget of the Registry, estimated a about $4,000 a year, has been shared by the Onondaga County Youth Board an County Probation Department. Cost of the research function, mainly for staff cons tation services and preparation of the Delinquency Profile reports, has been met b the Center. Office space, equipment, and supplies are provided by the County Prob tion Department.

WORK CAMPS FOR YOUNG OFFENDERS

In September, 1959, following an outbreak of gang violence in New York City, G ernor Nelson A. Rockefeller announced a six-point program to combat juvenile d quency. Included in the Governor's proposals was a plan to expand New York S system of work camps for youthful offenders aged 16 to 21 and to establish additi types of camp facilities. The state's Interdepartmental Task Force on Youth and venile Delinquency later supplemented these proposals with specific recommenda on numbers and types of units and on the selection of camp populations.

With public attention focused on the work camp as a partial answer to the delinque problem, the Youth Development Center undertook a comparison and evaluati work camps as correctional institutions. The study, conducted by Dr. Lee J. C concentrated on the following questions: What is a work camp? How does it co with and relate to training schools, reformatories, and other institutional facil What are the strong and weak points in a camp program, according to persons ing in this field? What are the hallmarks of a "successful" camp program?

The study report, published by the Center in 1960 under the title *Work Cam Young Offenders,* surveys the work camp idea in the United States and England. marizes current literature in the field, and describes Dr. Cary's visits to Camp salia and Monterey, the two work camps then operating in New York State. The draws heavily on experiences in California, the state with the most extensive camp program in the nation.

The purpose of a work camp is to provide a place and program for young off whose behavior requires their removal from their homes and communities but do not require secure custody. The values of a camp experience center arou relationships among campmen and between campmen and counselors; the atm of freedom, participation, and responsibility; and a meaningful work experi an outdoor setting. All camps are open-type facilities, and almost all share the ing general characteristics. The camp population is limited, usually to under 10 and is carefully selected, with youths screened for a high rehabilitation potenti for the physical and mental abilities to benefit from an outdoor work experience the exception of California's junior camps, programs are designed for boys between the ages of 16 and 21 placed in camps for a limited period of time, generally six to eight months. Programs emphasize individual and group counseling, necessitating a high ratio of trained staff to boys. Systems of privileges and recognitions are widely used to spur individual responsibility and team spirit and to secure positive responses to camp programs. Projects are based on constructive work experiences directed toward the protection and conservation of natural resources. Some camps have diversified work programs such as farming, park development, simple manufacturing, and construction projects.

Work Camps for Young Offenders is a best seller among Center publications. Over 1,500 copies of this specialized report have been distributed to individuals, agencies, and governmental units concerned with institutional facilities for delinquent youths. The extent of this concern in New York State can be measured by the state's greatly increased commitment to the work camp idea. Two camps were in operation in 1959; today there are six. In addition, the state has pioneered in the development of "youth opportunity centers," facilities for youths 15 through 17 years of age who are in some danger of becoming delinquent. Through its survey and recommendations, the Center feels that it has played some part in public awareness of and responsiveness to the role of camp-type facilities in the state's correctional program.

YOUTH PROBLEMS: THE SCHOOL SETTING

MADISON AREA PROJECT

The Madison Area Project began because Syracuse, like most metropolitan areas, has its slums. The heart of Syracuse slumland is the 15th Ward, which sits inelegantly between the downtown business district and the back door of Syracuse University. Here is the Negro ghetto. Here is dilapidated housing, unemployment, poverty, crime, disillusionment, frustration. Here is the community's highest concentration of social problems, including juvenile delinquency. Here, too, is the city's first public housing project, its first urban renewal target area, its first locale for neighborhood houses and social service centers. And here is Madison School, a scant ten-minute walk from the Youth Development Center.

Eighty-five per cent Negro, and with enough educational and social problems to drive a teacher to early retirement, Madison School began occupying the attention of the Youth Development Center almost from the first moment there was a Center. Community leaders who gave counsel to the Center in its early program directions invariably mentioned Madison School. Professionals concerned with social service planning talked of the Madison School area. Center staff members charting baselines on delinquency, school dropouts, grade retardation—all arrived at Madison School. It became increasingly obvious that an organization interested in youth development and striving to combine worthwhile research with worthwhile service to its home community could not ignore Madison School.

In November, 1958, the Center began discussions with the Superintendent of Schools and central administrative staff over a possible working relationship in the Madison area. By March, 1959, an outline of a "Proposed Madison School Neighborhood Youth Development Project" had been drafted and submitted to the Syracuse Board of Education and the Center's Community Citizens Board. Approval of both groups was secured in June, and by July an ad hoc steering committee had been appointed to add muscle and meat to the proposal's skeletal frame. This particular task was accomplished by a subcommittee, the Action-Research Design Group, which met weekly for a period of months. Composed of representatives from Madison School, the Syracuse School District administrative staff, and the Youth Development Center, this group was charged with drafting a specific "action and research program which will be mutually agreed upon, possible of attainment, reasonable in scope, and acceptable to the Steering Committee."

Hundreds of man-hours were devoted to discussions of curriculum changes, teacher training programs, remedial classes, additions to classroom and auxiliary personnel, cultural enrichment programs, administrative organization, and school-community relations, and to the collection of baseline data through a special testing program. Because of the limited funds available to the Board of Education at this time, the Youth Development Center agreed to finance any new programs begun during the 1960 calendar year.

By January, 1961, the Madison Steering Committee could point to a flurry of activities at Madison and its two feeder elementary schools, Croton and Washington Irving. Studies had been launched in reading and arithmetic achievement. The Madison teaching faculty was meeting every two weeks for staff orientation sessions. A testing program was in operation to provide a profile on every student. A school-community worker and a second guidance counselor had joined the full-time staff. The school social worker, nurse, and attendance officer had been transferred from part to full-time duties. A coordinated program of court and neighborhood services had been devised for those children in difficulty with the law. A four-week "school for parents" had lured mothers and fathers into the school setting. A Madison School Community Organization, spearheaded by Center staff member Dr. Bernice M. Wright, was building parent interest in and support for new educational ventures. Special programs in art, music, and dramatics were in full swing, and many students were being introduced to the cultural resources in the city and county.

But though the Center and the Board of Education could point to all of these activities, they could hardly point with pride. The trips, the testing, the curriculum changes, the additional personnel, the meetings and discussions and workshops and dedication all added up to something less than a satisfactory program for an area desperately in need of help. The problems were so immense that, as one staff member commented, "Working in Madison School under the present program is like going on safari with a slingshot."

In January of 1961, the Youth Development Center reluctantly presented to its Community Citizens Board the following assessment: "On the basis of our experience to date, we have come to the conclusion that it is highly improbable that any significant effect can be made upon the conditions apparent in this school and neighborhood without a global community attack involving a major reorganization of Madison School."

In a let's-wipe-the-slate-clean-and-start-all-over mood, Center staff members recommended that the Syracuse University School of Education be commissioned to do a six-month study of the school situation and propose corrective measures. The Center would underwrite the cost of the study, provide opportunities for consultations with educational leaders across the country, participate in proposal development, and help seek the necessary funding to launch a new Madison School program.

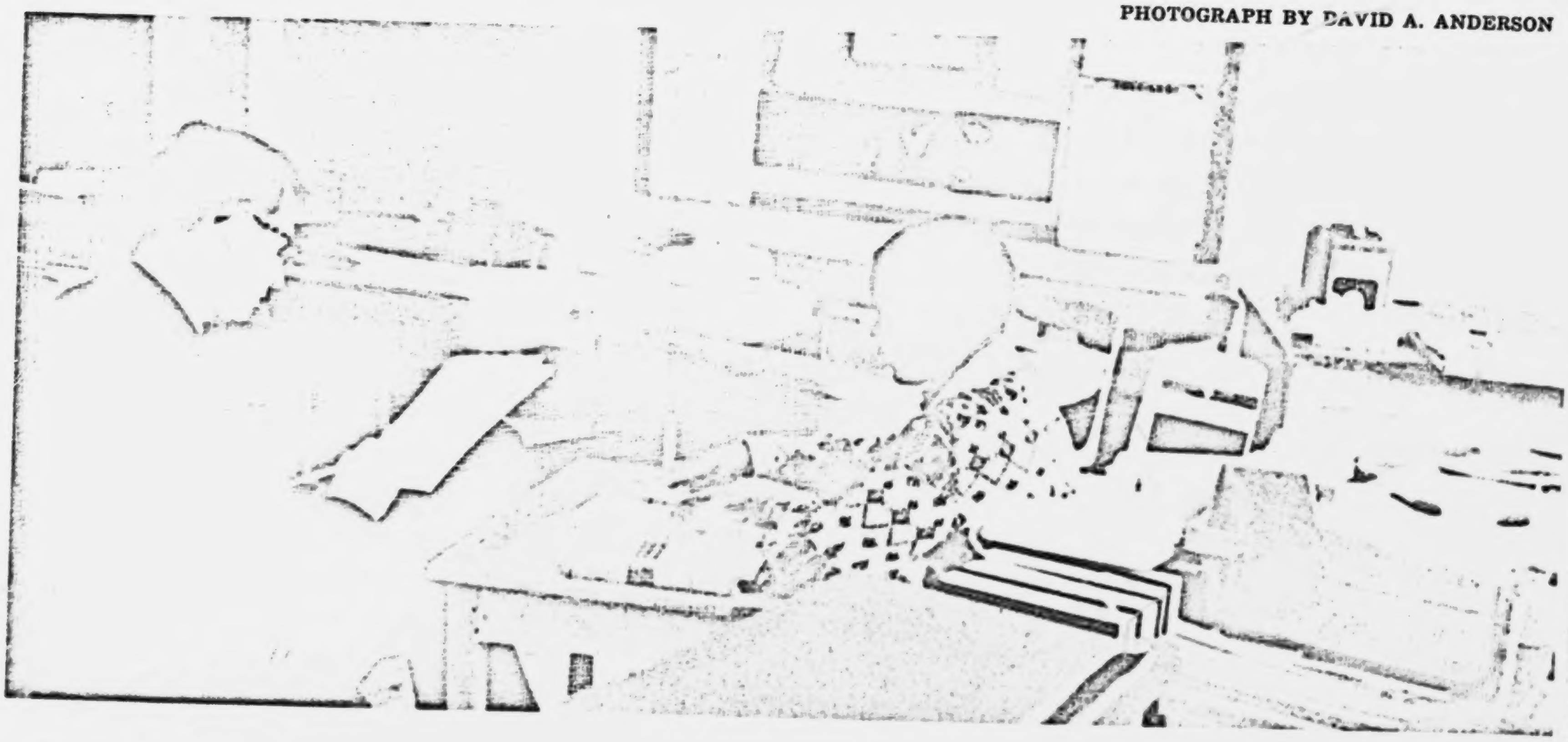
All of this has been accomplished. A study team of Dean Virgil M. Rogers, Dr. Thomas E. Clayton, and Dr. Paul M. Halverson from the School of Education began work in February, 1961. They met initially with members of the Madison staff, parents, community leaders, Board of Education personnel, city planning authorities, and staff members of the Youth Development Center. Site visits were made to several of the Ford Foundation's "grey area" school projects. Representatives of New York City's Higher Horizons program came to Syracuse for a series of consultations. In July, 1961, the study team issued its recommendations in a 116-page report, *Analysis and Proposals for the Madison Area Education Program.*

Drawing heavily on experience acquired in Higher Horizons-type projects for the culturally deprived child, the report called for sweeping curriculum and administrative changes, greatly expanded student services, extensive parent education programs, additional faculty and special-services personnel, in-service training programs, and enlarged recreational and community activities. The goals set for the new Madison Area Project were (1) to increase the academic achievement level of the students, (2) to increase culturally-approved social skills, (3) to motivate students toward standards of excellence, (4) to change those values that may retard a student's social mobility, (5) to develop positive vocational attitudes and skills, (6) to build positive self-concepts among students, (7) to develop a consistent program to inform and involve the entire community, and (8) to evaluate the program.

Initial financing for this expanded project was obtained from the Syracuse Board of Education, the New York State Department of Education, and the Ford Foundation. The Youth Development Center guided the successful search for funds and, in addition, diverted to the new Madison Area project close to $100,000 of Ford Foundation money earmarked for the Center. Staff members also participated in recruiting the Project Director, Dr. Mario D. Fantini of Temple University.

With Dr. Fantini's appointment in April, 1962, the Center's active involvement in the Madison Area Project came to an end. Individual staff members have continued to serve in an advisory capacity on special projects and arrangements have been made for several research programs (detailed in the following pages) to be undertaken within the M.A.P. framework. Beyond this, however, the rapidly-developing Madison Area Project can be placed in the Center's favorite category, that of "community project successfully launched with Youth Development Center aid and now operating on its own."

PHOTOGRAPH BY DAVID A. ANDERSON



INDICATORS OF DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGE IN LOWER-CLASS CHILDREN

Psychologist David E. Hunt subscribes to Kurt Lewin's belief that "there is nothing as useful as a good theory." Particularly useful is the theory that can account for occurrences in a specified domain *and* provide a basis for understanding phenomena in other realms. With colleagues O. J. Harvey and Harold M. Schroder, Dr. Hunt has advanced a theory of personality development summarized in their 1961 book, ***Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization.*** The scope of the theory addresses itself to the following areas: (1) understanding the course of personality development through preadolescence and adolescence, (2) specifying the training conditions influencing the course of development, such as parental practices and classroom milieu, and (3) attempting to induce change by applying certain training conditions to a homogeneous target population.

DR. DAVID E. HUNT

The Conceptual Systems model sees personality development in terms of several successive stages on a continuous dimension. In Stage I, the child learns the ground rules of interpersonal relations that apply to everyone. (Until the Stage I work is mastered, he is considered at a Sub I Stage.) In Stage II, he learns about himself and how he is distinct from these generalized standards. At Stage III, he develops an understanding of specific other persons and the differences between them. In Stage IV, the child weaves his knowledge of self and others into a meaningful, integrated organization. From this view, personality patterns are seen as systems of organization between a person and other objects. Progression through the four stages represents increasing interpersonal maturity and adaptation.

Underlying this theoretical orientation, of course, is an assumption on the value of abstractness or a higher conceptual level. As expressed by Dr. Hunt, "We believe that abstract conceptual structure and its associated characteristics of creativity, flexibility, stress tolerance, and broad-spectrum coping power is a desirable, adaptive stage. In short, it is a good thing! . . . . Viewed presently, the role of education in our society is *not* training children to achieve higher marks on objective, machine-scored examinations. Rather, from a conceptual systems viewpoint, the aim of education is to produce persons who are questioning, inventive, original, critical, creative, and if need be, different."[1]

Dr. Hunt's "Indicators" project, financed by the Ford Foundation, is an extension of his earlier theoretical work supported by the National Institute of Mental Health. The study investigates personality development in lower-class children, with special reference to the role of personality factors in the school. We know that the personality organization of older children differs somehow from that of younger children. However, very little is known about how these differences develop. If our understanding of personality development of children-in-general is limited, we know even less about the pattern development in lower-class children. Despite this general lack of knowledge, an increasing number of educational and therapeutic programs are being set up with the goal of "developing" the lower-class child. If we can gain a better understanding of the nature of personality development, it seems logical to think we might also be better able to set up more effective programs and measure their results more precisely.

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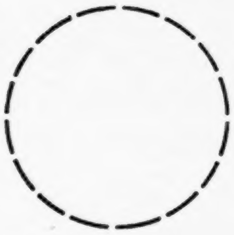
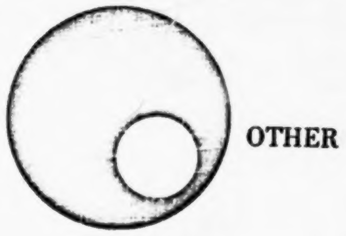
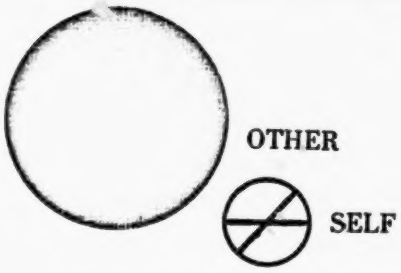
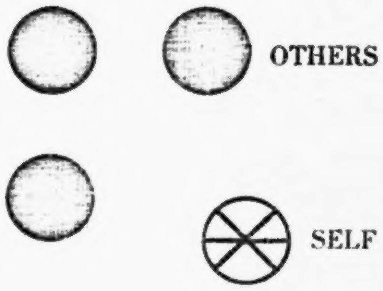
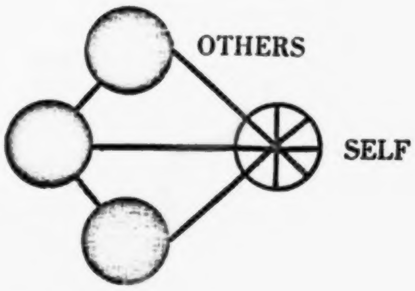
[1] **David E. Hunt, "Modification of Conceptual Systems," paper read at an invited symposium, Society for Research in Child Development, Pennsylvania State University, March, 1961.**

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATIONS UNDER OPTIMAL CONDITIONS

STAGE	INTERPERSONAL ORIENTATION	"Conceptual work" associated with specific stage
SUB-I		Self-centered, *unorganized* phase before incorporation of cultural standards.
STAGE I		Learning the "ground rules" or *cultural standards* which apply to everyone.
STAGE II		Learning about oneself and how one is distinct from these generalized standards.
STAGE III		Applying these self-anchored dimensions to an *empathic* understanding of other persons and the differences between them.
STAGE IV		Placing the dimensions applicable to self and other into a meaningful *integrated* relation.

References: Harvey, O. J., Hunt, D. E., and Schroder, H. M. *Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization.* N.Y. Wiley, 1961.
Hunt, D. E. A Conceptual Systems change model and its application to education, Unpublished ms, 1964.

In order to acquire such understanding, two things are needed: (1) instruments for determining personality patterns in children, and (2) a population of lower-class children available over a sufficiently long time for developmental change to occur. The second requirement is the easiest to meet. Through the cooperation of the Madison Area Project, children at Madison, Washington Irving, and Croton schools form the primary study population. The first requirement—measures to chart stages of development—is far more difficult. Many such tests are based on paper-and-pencil procedures, an area in which large numbers of lower-class youngsters are deficient and/or disinterested. A main goal of the Indicators project is to discover or devise instruments without this built-in limitation. A second hope is that the measures developed will not only serve as indicators of change but will also tell what intervention technique is most likely to be effective for a specific stage group.

In January, 1963, Dr. Hunt and his research associate, John Dopyera, began administering a battery of five personality tests to the 147 boys and girls in the ninth grade at Madison Junior High. Results of these tests were reviewed with three aims: (1) to determine which measures were appropriate for this group, (2) to compare the general pattern of scores on measures which turned out to be appropriate with middle-class norms already obtained, and (3) to select for further study a few persons who appeared to represent fairly discrete stages of personality structure. Although the five measures were differentially appropriate, four worked reasonably well in distinguishing three stages of personality development. As described by Dr. Hunt, these stages are marked by the following characteristics:

> *Sub I Stage.* In the present population, the Sub I orientation is characterized by a failure to incorporate the generalized standard along with an attempt to "break away" and define oneself. But the Stage II work of self-delineation cannot proceed without the Stage I incorporation of a standard from which to distinguish oneself. The Sub I orientation at this age therefore is seen as attempting to function at Stage II without having dealt successfully with Stage I. The most central feature of this unsuccessful attempt to oppose a standard which has not been articulated is *concrete negativism.*
>
> *Stage I.* The major focus here is on the *generalized standard* (right-wrong) and one's compliance to this standard. The person oriented to Stage I experiences his world in categorical chunks (good-bad) which are based on absolutistic cultural prescriptions. He adapts to changes in the environment only by turning to the "rule book," since for him the "rules of the game" *are* the game. Such inflexible concreteness, of course, precludes effective adaptation to change. Interpersonal relations occur in a network of role prescriptions without any empathic understanding of what the other person feels or thinks.
>
> *Stage II.* The focus is on an independent "break away" from the standard and the development of self-anchored standards. It is important to distinguish the Stage II orientation from the Sub I, since both are oppositional in structure. Stage II represents "negative independence" or "freedom from" constraint, in Fromm's terms, which implies that the generalized standard has been incorporated earlier. Stage II is concerned with *self-distinctiveness* ("How am I different from the rest

of the world?") in contrast to the concern of self-centeredness ("I am the world"). The higher conceptual level of Stage II is shown by the person's increasing awareness of alternatives.

To researchers Hunt and Dopyera, a particularly exciting result of the Madison testing is the occurrence in this population of the Sub I Stage, which earlier had not been distinguished from Stage II. This distinction helps account for previous testing effects which were theoretically puzzling and also has considerable implication for intervention programs.

Up through the testing of the Madison ninth grade, all of Dr. Hunt's stage groupings had been done on paper. In the spring of 1963, the Madison School staff offered Dr. Hunt an opportunity to form actual classroom groups on the basis of conceptual systems development. The general aim was to determine the relevance and value of these stage classifications for actual educational practice. Accordingly, three groups of approximately 20 students each were formed, using stage development and I.Q. as the screening criteria. In order to observe the students under equal conditions, all of the groups had the same English teacher, the same science teacher, and the same social studies teacher. No attempt was made to introduce new educational practices. The three teachers concerned were told initially only to note their reactions to the new groupings for a six-week trial period.

Teacher response was generally enthusiastic, with comments stressing the convenience and efficiency of the groupings. As one teacher expressed it, "I think it was a great help . . . I don't know how you mixed these but you did a pretty good job . . . you know more what to expect with these classes."

Following the grouping experiment, 441 students in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades were assessed on 12 different personality measures. The multiple aims of this extensive testing were to classify students according to conceptual stage for classroom grouping purposes; to increase the understanding of conceptual stages by use of multiple measures; and to establish a base of present conceptual level from which the student's subsequent change could be noted. Data from this phase of the project are still being evaluated. If groups of stage-similar students are formed, then conceptual systems theory provides a differential treatment model to suggest for these groups individually tailored educational programs that would allow for continued personality growth. If such programs could be developed for the sixth through eighth grades, Dr. Hunt's hope is then to work with children in the lower grades. Here he sees the problem as involving, first, the adaptation of measures for this age level; second, a thorough cross-sectional assessment; and third, specific intervention attempts coupled with a "short term" longitudinal study.

THE APPLICATION OF NET THEORY TO THE STUDY OF SCHOOL SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND DELINQUENCY

On June 5, 1963, each student attending Madison Junior High School was handed a brief, one-page form. On it, he was asked to write the names of the four Madison students who were his best friends, plus the names of three students he "would not like to hang around with after school."

DR. MORRIS H. SUNSHINE

These lists of seven names each are the basic data in a study exploring patterns of delinquent and lawful behavior among a school population. The researchers, Dr. Thomas J. Fararo and Dr. Morris H. Sunshine, hypothesize that associational processes are crucial in determining such behavior patterns.

Contacts among members of a group are frequently studied by means of a sociogram, which gives a visual summary of the choices and rejections among group members. This device, however, has certain limitations: it cannot handle large quantities of data in a conceptually precise manner. To overcome this problem, Fararo and Sunshine are analyzing friendship sociograms by using the mathematical theory of random and biased nets. A "random net" provides a standard frame of reference for studying an observed structure; in this case, the social contacts of adolescent boys. *In a random net, each person selects his associates as if by chance. In a biased net, however, the choices are made according to some principle held by the chooser, rather than at random.*

The principles of net theory permit the derivation of two kinds of consequences. Th first of these pertains to the structural characteristics of the net on its "connectivity" properties. The second pertains to individual traits. Here net theory provides theoreti distributions for the number of choices persons receive when a random or a bias net obtains.

The connectivity properties of the net are deduced from the theory, and are corro rated by summary data obtained in an operational procedure called "tracing," whi must be computer programmed for large-scale analyses. By tracing empirically, su mary data are obtained on the structural properties of the sociogram; for examp the "weak connectivity" estimate. Empirically, this is the proportion of persons w can be reached by tracing connections from a randomly selected starting set. *If ev one were directly or indirectly in contact with everyone else, this fraction would b unity; that is, it is a quantity varying between zero and one, from no connectivity complete or strong connectivity.* It receives its theoretical meaning as a probabil and this probability is derived from the principles of the theory, given certain ini conditions for the empirical sociogram such as the average number of contacts. Th there are no isolated empirical indices in net theoretical work, since all quanti obtained empirically receive a rationale within the theory. Similar conditions a to the distributions of individual traits, such as number of "friendship" choices recei

The investigators see their research problem as having two distinct phases. In the f the entire male school population is treated as a single net, based on the "four b friends" nominations. Then this total net is divided into two sub-nets, one consi only of students with a police record and the other of students without such a re Next, the researchers try to predict the structural properties of each of these net

In the second phase of the research, the task is to explain differences in net prope for example, why the biases are greater in this net than in that one. Conseque large portion of the research time is devoted to creating explicit hypotheses that explain the variations in the bias parameters from one net to another.

If the analysis of "best friends" sociograms seems promising, Fararo and Sun plan explorations into other kinds of structural patterns. For example, "who d dislike" nets might be analyzed, or nets might be divided on social background or cultural value traits in addition to the delinquency variable.

Although sociometric analysis is not a new technique, its use has been limited to studies of small interaction networks. By applying the potentialities of net theory and the capabilities of the computer, Fararo and Sunshine are attempting to extend this mode of analysis to interaction networks of almost any size or complexity. The computer programs they are creating have immediate application to the problems encountered by Professor Robert Hardt in his efforts to identify delinquent and non-delinquent interaction patterns among junior high school boys.

In his work for the Mayor's Commission for Youth, Professor Hardt has collected sociometric data for four Syracuse schools in addition to Madison. The summary indicators derived by Fararo and Sunshine will be used to determine the extent of distinctive delinquent subcultures within these schools. Professor Hardt also plans further analyses to see if friendship choices are more closely linked to officially-recorded delinquences or to delinquency patterns revealed by the self-report approach.

DR. THOMAS J. FARARO

NORMS AND BEHAVIOR OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

How do Syracuse teenagers see themselves and their community? What rules of conduct do they adhere to, what values do they hold, what goals do they hope to reach? One picture of local teenage life is coming from the Syracuse Youth Opinion Poll, a questionnaire and self-report form devised by Professor Robert H. Hardt and his colleagues, George E. Bodine and Sandra J. Peterson, in connection with their research for the Mayor's Commission for Youth. The poll is one fact-finding device used in plotting a community approach to delinquency. Junior high school students were asked about their satisfaction with various aspects of school and neighborhood life, their educational and job aspirations, and their involvement in delinquency activities.

The 1,850 respondents attend four public schools and one parochial school representing areas with both "high" and "low" delinquency rates. The neighborhoods showing high rates of delinquency and other social problems have been chosen as "action areas" for future Mayor's Commission programs. The area low in community problems has been selected for comparison purposes.

One aim of the questionnaire is to provide a baseline or bench mark on the extent of delinquency involvement in these various neighborhoods. The poll obtains information on "hidden delinquencies," the acts that are not detected or recorded by official law enforcement agencies. The use and construction of "self-report" forms is discussed later in this report; for a more detailed presentation the reader is directed to the section headed "Conference on Self-Report Techniques." The self-report form of the Youth Opinion Poll contains 19 items dealing with theft, fighting, wayward activities, vandalism, and police contacts. Respondents are asked to check the last time ("in the last 7 days"; "in the last 12 months"; "over a year ago"; "never") they have participated in a specific anti-social act. Included are such items as "I took something worth more than $.50 from a store"; "I took part in a fight where knives or other weapons were used"; "I stayed out all night without my parents knowing about it"; "I broke street lights or windows in a building."

Findings reveal that boys in low-income neighborhoods are more likely to report extensive involvement in theft than boys in middle-income areas. A somewhat similar trend is shown by fighting activity. However, nearly equal proportions of youngsters in all areas admit involvement in vandalism and wayward acts.

Analysis of responses to the self-report form reveal highly interrelated patterns of individual activities. If a boy reports committing the most serious act of a given type, such as theft, he is likely to report committing all of the less serious theft acts. To a lesser degree, the boy who reports extensive involvement in one type of delinquent behavior, such as theft, is likely to be involved in other types of delinquencies, such as fighting. In addition, boys who report more extensive delinquency activity are more likely to have had police contacts.

A second purpose of the research is to suggest some factors that may account for neighborhood differences in delinquency activity. Two of the key factors examined by Professor Hardt are the impact of neighborhood disorganization and the pressures of economic deprivation. In addition to utilizing data collected in the Youth Opinion Poll, information on these points was obtained from the mothers of over 500 pupils in an hour-long household interview called the Syracuse Neighborhood Survey.

Data from both the Youth Opinion Poll and the Neighborhood Survey tend to confirm that high delinquency areas show considerable evidence of neighborhood demoralization. The neighborhoods are perceived as unattractive and "anomic" settings in which may be found many individuals with anti-social and criminal commitments.

The role of socio-economic deprivation in relation to the local delinquency pattern appears to be quite complex. Some delinquency theorists have suggested that the excessive rates of delinquency in low-income areas result from the status discontent experienced by many economically deprived youth.

The data do indicate that low-income youth aspire to educational, occupational, and income goals far above those realized by their parents. Local information on educational achievement levels, school dropout rates, and high youth unemployment suggest that difficult obstacles will face low-income youths attempting to realize such high goals. However, among our juvenile age group there is little awareness of these "blocked opportunities" or direct statements of status discontent. Thus, the findings suggest that the manner in which poverty and delinquency is linked in medium-sized cities such as Syracuse may require a substantial modification in some of the more recent theoretical speculations.

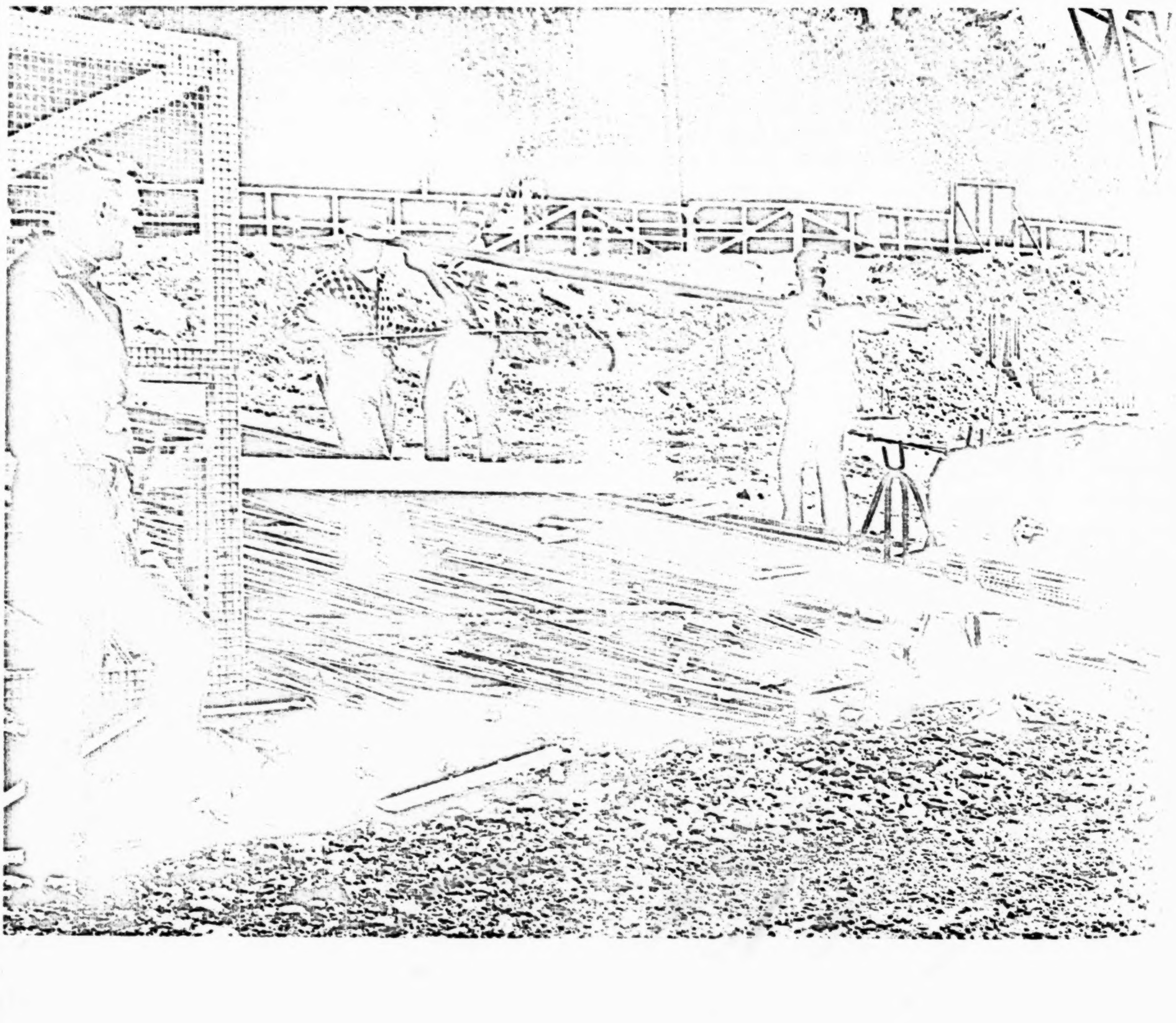
While some neighborhood conditions appear to be an important factor in delinquency causation, even in the highest delinquency neighborhoods many boys show no evidence of delinquency involvement. Such relative immunity may be linked to certain dispositional or personality factors. Some of these relevant factors appear to be incorporated in the model of personality development provided by the Conceptual Systems theory. (For a description of the theory and its application to educational settings, see "Indicators of Developmental Change" in an earlier section of this report.)

The significance of this model for the particular problem of delinquency is revealed by an analysis conducted among junior high boys within our highest delinquency neighborhood. A much higher proportion of delinquents is found among boys of a particpersonality type: the lowest maturity level, Stage Sub-I. This group also reports more frequent involvement in fighting, theft, and vandalism. Data from other sections of the Youth Opinion Poll show consistent differences between persons at a Sub-I stage level and those at higher stages of conceptual development. Briefly, the Sub-I group tends to have:

1. less expression of guilt feelings over illegal acts
2. less reliance on internalized standards of right and wrong
3. a much greater reliance on peer group standards
4. a greater acceptance of rationalizations for deviant behavior
5. a history of school problems
6. less regard for teachers and school rules
7. lower educational aspirations
8. a more fatalistic attitude toward the future
9. a more negative conception of self

The Conceptual Systems theory may be particularly useful for delinquency control and prevention efforts. It suggests that more effective treatment would result if specific intervention strategies were directed to specific types of youngsters. This differential intervention approach has shown considerable promise both in classroom settings in Syracuse and with youthful probationers in California. Consideration is being given to a pilot program in Syracuse that would incorporate this approach into rehabilitation strategies for adjudicated delinquents.

YOUTH PROBLEMS:
THE SCHOOL DROPOUT AND THE WORLD OF WORK



THE SCHOOL DROPOUT AND THE WORLD OF WORK

You are doubtless familiar with the popular image of the school dropout. He is the young man you see lounging around the corner gas station or pool hall or nearest street corner. He is somewhat dull and shiftless, has a low I.Q., wasn't able to keep up in school, didn't like school, and left at the earliest opportunity. His home life doesn't amount to much, usually his father isn't around, and the family struggles along on a day-to-day existence. As for the boy himself, he spends most of his time loafing, talking back to his elders, and getting into trouble.

If you hold this picture of the school dropout, you are not alone. This is the national stereotype. The only thing wrong with it, contends Dr. S. M. Miller, is its failure to match reality. A sociologist and economist, Dr. Miller has directed one Center study on the characteristics of school dropouts, is currently working on two other related research topics, and speaks with some authority on this diploma-disadvantaged segment of our population. Further, Dr. Miller is firm in his belief that we compound the problem every time we talk about THE school dropout.

There is no such person as THE dropout, according to Dr. Miller. Rather, there are many varieties of dropouts, with a wide range of abilities, backgrounds, potentials, and reasons for leaving school. Consequently, no one program or approach can hope to solve the problem of early school leaving or the related problem of unemployment among our young adults.

The Youth Development Center's interest in the school dropout and the world of work began in 1959, when Dr. Norman Roth conducted a survey of work permit issuance and work-study programs in Onondaga County. This study, based on interviews with school personnel, recommended the better coordination of existing work-study programs and the introduction of special types of programs for those youngsters under 16 years old either retarded or lacking in motivation for achievement. It also questioned the advisability of some of the restrictions built into the New York State child labor laws. Details of this study and its findings can be found in the Center's monograph, *An Analysis of Work Permit Issuance and Work-Study Programs in Onondaga County, N. Y.*

With Dr. Roth's resumption of full-time duties for the Syracuse University School of Social Work, Center efforts in the area of school and work opportunities awaited the arrival of Dr. Miller in 1961. One of his first Center endeavors was to direct, for the New York State Division for Youth, a study of all students who left junior or senior high schools in Syracuse during the 1959-60 academic year without completing graduation requirements. Subsequent grants from the Division for Youth and the United States Social Security Administration have allowed Dr. Miller and his research team to study the characteristics of the early school leaver, including the dropout who returns to school and the "unemployable" dropout; to trace the residential patterns of dropouts; to review the work experiences of dropouts for a two-year period after leaving school; to evaluate the effectiveness of one type of pre-job training program for dropouts; and to explore the political, economic, and educational implications of the dropout problem. In addition, a follow-up of the 1959-60 core study, covering the 1960-61 academic year, has been undertaken by Dr. Carolyn Comings.

Findings of the 1959-60 study are presented in the New York State Division for Youth publication, *The School Dropout Problem—Syracuse,* written by Dr. Miller, Dr. Comings, and Betty Saleem. Reports of subsequent investigations are presented in a number of working papers and journal articles; readers are directed to the staff bibliography for a current listing.

Who are the school dropouts? What are they like? Why do they leave school? What happens to them? The findings reported by Dr. Miller and his colleagues, and borne out by similar studies conducted in Rochester, Buffalo, and New York City, suggest that many of our traditional notions about dropouts need sharp revision.

For example, we usually think of school dropouts in terms of boys; but in the Syracuse study almost 45 per cent of the dropouts are girls. We think of the dropout as mentally retarded, as a "slow learner," incapable of meeting academic demands. Yet two-thirds of the Syracuse dropouts have I.Q.'s of 90 or above. We tend to think of the dropout as a troublemaker, and as a social deviant frequently tangling with the law. Yet only one in four Syracuse dropouts has any police contacts within two years after leaving school, and most of these are for minor offenses. We frequently categorize the dropout as a product of a broken home. Yet more than half of all dropouts in the Syracuse study live with both parents. The dropout, we commonly think, is the youngster from the other side of the tracks. Although a majority of dropouts do come from poor families, almost one-third of the parents of Syracuse dropouts are in white-collar jobs.

Those youngsters who do leave school before graduation can be classified into three fairly distinct types. Dr. Miller refers to them as the school-rejected, who are overtly or covertly pushed out by the school; the school-inadequate, who have a mild antipathy toward school and who leave fairly early; and the school-irrelevant, those who extremely dislike school and who exit as soon as they can. A surprising finding, however, is the reservoir of good feeling toward school harbored by all three of these groups. Most dropouts have a generally favorable attitude toward school; they think teachers are usually fair; they miss school because of its social aspects. School, they seem to be saying, is "okay"—but it is generally irrelevant. These youths are perplexed by school because it places great constraints on their behavior, it is not intrinsically interesting, and it does not have a visible connection with the actual content of jobs on the outside. They recognize, however, that a high school diploma is a necessary credential for many jobs, though not an aid in actually performing these jobs.

When asked, "How important is school?," one boy replied, "I can't rightly say. I've never had a chance to know what school really is." Some dropouts actively look for a second chance "to know what school really is." Dr. Miller's study of returnees to the Syracuse public school system shows that at least 10 per cent, and possibly as many as 25 per cent, of the 1959-60 dropouts seek further training after leaving school, and this without any real effort on the part of the educational system to encourage a return. This suggests that the building of pathways back to school could be an extremely effective tactic. Such boys should not be considered renegades from school, reluctantly admitted only if they show firm signs of "good behavior." Rather, Dr. Miller suggests that the community should institutionalize second, third, and fourth chances for education.

The importance of post-dropout education is reaffirmed in the Saleem and Miller study, "Two Years in the Syracuse Labor Market: Work Experiences of Dropouts," a reanalysis and extension of data collected by eight master's degree candidates in the Syracuse University School of Social Work. Findings suggest that the dropout leaves a fairly well-defined role as a high school student without any ritual or social support to ease the transition into a new role. The new role is undefined; the youth is no longer a student and he is not yet old enough to be given the adult status he seeks. Failure to secure a "respectable" job with which he can identify may be a severe blow for the dropout. He is left, as it is, in limbo, a failure in school and in the job world; he is not quite sure who or what he is or what he should do next. It is at this point in the post-dropout experience that guidance and training may be welcomed and effective.

The generally poor occupational position of the dropout is confirmed in this study. The difficulty is not that dropouts cannot find jobs but that only low-level jobs are available to them. In Syracuse, the boy dropouts are as frequently employed as are all males aged 18 to 22. Furthermore, they are able to find full-time employment. Their jobs, however, are usually as unskilled or semi-skilled operatives, service workers, or laborers. Of every 10 jobs, six pay no more than $1.50 an hour and only two pay more than $1.75 per hour. The girl dropout is even more handicapped by her aborted education. Few find clerical positions. Of every 10 jobs held, eight pay no more than $1.25 an hour.

The non-white dropout is triply handicapped by his race, generally low social status, and his limited education. Non-whites in the study experience no more unemployment than do whites, but they are almost excluded from the white-collar and craftsman jobs open to some white dropouts. In addition, non-white boys advance in job level less frequently than white boys in the two years following school dropout. It is obvious that since a large proportion of dropouts are non-white, any program for dropouts must also be concerned with the elimination of racial discrimination.

The dropouts' situation would not be lamented if their low-level jobs were merely entry jobs leading to progressively more responsible positions and higher wages. But there is little evidence of job advancement in this study; fourth and fifth jobs are generally similar to first jobs. What is needed is a much better fit between the educational processes and available work opportunities. The achievement of such a "fit" is a difficult process. Part of the change must be in the educational system. The entire concept of vocational education needs to be reviewed in terms of its basic goals and its success in

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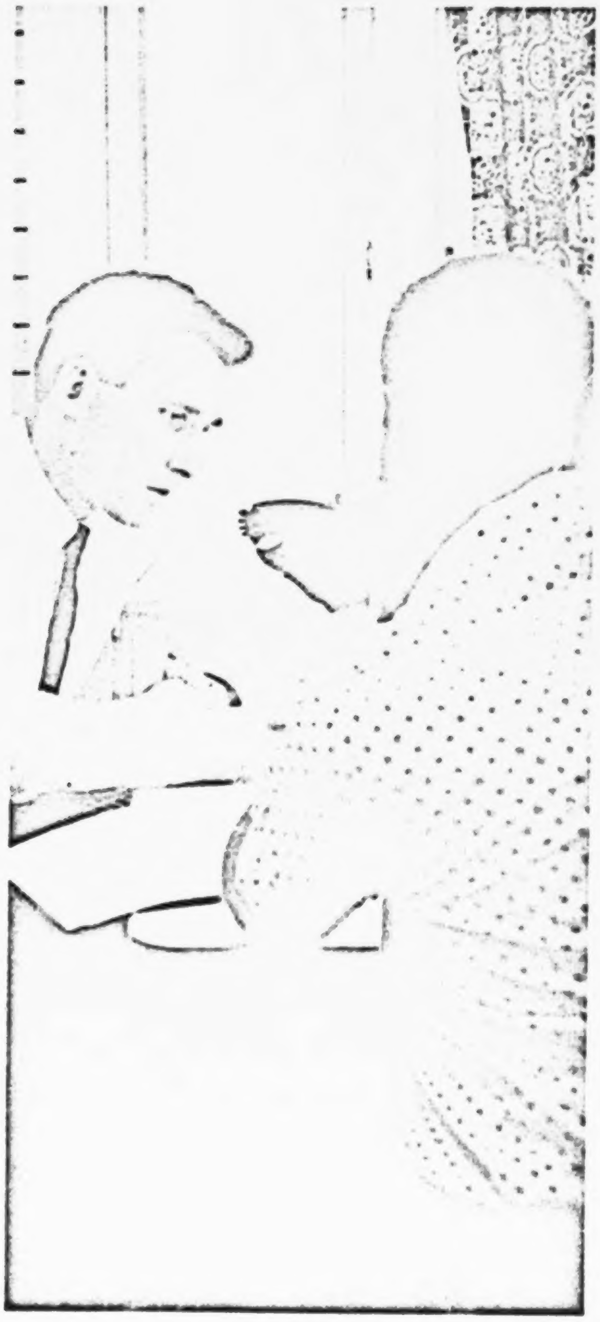
preparing youth to earn a living. Industry, too, can play a part in the preparation of youth for participation in the labor force. There is room for an enlarged number of programs, sponsored by industry individually or jointly, for the training of youth in skills which are in demand in the local community.

Clearly, the problem is more than providing skills in the labor force to meet the demands of industry; it is also one of insuring that the jobs are available, that the economy grows to meet the employment needs of the population. The "dropout problem" is not merely a matter of encouraging youth to complete high school; it must be viewed in a much wider perspective than is currently the case among many who are concerned with dropouts.



"... the dropout leaves a fairly well-defined role as a high school student without any ritual or social support to ease the transition into a new role. The new role is undefined; the youth is no longer a student and he is not yet old enough to be given the adult status he seeks."

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YOUTH PROBLEMS: THE FAMILY SETTING

FAMILY CONSULTANT SERVICE

In September, 1960, the Youth Development Center and the Syracuse Housing Authority began a cooperative, experimental program directed toward selected multi-problem families in one of Syracuse's four public housing projects. The program grew out of early discussions between Center and Housing Authority staff to plan research on public housing and social mobility. The aim of the Family Consultant Program was to test the effectiveness of short-term, intensive social service for those families burdened with a chronic over-supply of problems and limited resources for their solution. Service was offered in the form of a Family Consultant, a full-time, professionally-trained and experienced caseworker supervised by the Housing Authority's Coordinator of Social and Community Services.

Designed as a demonstration-research program, the service phase of the Family Consultant project ended in September, 1963. Analysis of data is now underway, and the final study report is expected during 1964. An account of the first year's work is documented in the Center's report, *Families Under Stress*, and a number of working papers and articles have appeared over the past three years. (See the bibliography of staff writings for a full list.) The study team responsible for the program is composed of Dr. Charles V. Willie (currently on leave of absence to the President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime), Dr. Lee J. Cary, Morton O. Wagenfeld, and Janet E. Weinandy, the family consultant.

The study consists of 54 households identified by the housing project manager as "families in need of immediate help" and randomly divided into control and study groups. The two groups are similar racially—87 per cent of the study group and 83 per cent of the control group have Negro heads of household. They are similar in age—the median for all adult members is 28 years. They are similar in dependency status—83 per cent of the study group and 87 per cent of the control group families receive public welfare assistance. They are similar in median annual income—$2900 for the study group and $2600 for the control group.

After identifying the problem families, the manager was asked to supply the names of project families he considered to be the most stable households. This list contained 40 families. In the spring of 1961, the homes of both stable and problem families were visited by trained interviewers who administered a 13-page schedule seeking information on demographic characteristics, occupational and marital history, and family participation in voluntary associations. The interviewers were not told how the families had been classified by the project manager, but were asked at the end of the interview to give their judgment as to whether the family should be placed in the "stable" or "problem" category. The interviewers and the project manager were in 72 per cent agreement on classification.

In the meantime, Mrs. Weinandy had begun her part of the project design. Rather than setting up a Family Consultant Office and waiting for her "problem clients," she practiced aggressive, reaching-out social casework; she knocked on doors of study group families and offered her services. Though prepared for a hostile reception, she had little trouble getting into the homes or in being able to talk with the tenants in a meaningful way about their problems. Extensive newspaper publicity announcing the family consultant service played an important part in making Mrs. Weinandy "official"; so too did the public housing setting, where periodic inspections and calls by management are accepted as part of the "rules of the game."

Once inside the home, Mrs. Weinandy found a Pandora's box of troubles: marital problems, emotional problems, health problems, legal problems, housekeeping problems, problems with the children, with the neighbors, with the school. But most of all, she found money problems. The majority of the heads of households are severely limited in their wage-earning abilities, through lack of education (though the median school year completed is 10th grade for both stable and problem families, five heads of problem households are virtual illiterates) and lack of marketable skills. Thus, limited family income is a constant problem, but even more vexing is the mismanagement of family income. The problem families are easy prey for door-to-door vendors, pressure selling and installment purchases. Debts pile up, and the slightest variation in income—loss of even one day's pay because of illness—can bring disaster.

DR. CHARLES V. WILLIE

Given this unnerving range of family ills, what does one do? Mrs. Weinandy has [illegible] a variety of approaches, which she sums up under the headings of "action," "directness," "use of authority," and "the practical approach." In an interview at the beginning of her second year as family consultant, Mrs. Weinandy talked about some of her working methods:

> "Starting with the first approach to the case, the worker has to take the initiative—and continue taking it. It's necessary to do many things *with* the client, [illegible] and demonstrate. This past year I've tackled jobs I never dreamed of in casework with middle-class families. I've done a mending on the spot with my portable sewing machine; baby-sat to let the mother keep a clinic appointment; taken a frightened parent to the hospital for surgery; gone with clients to see their creditors and discuss refinancing of debts; and even served as a banker, holding money for rent and other necessities until due.
>
> "There is a great need for directness. To get anywhere with these clients, you must spell out pretty frankly what has gone wrong with their situation, and why you are there. This isn't easy for a caseworker trained to practice subtleties, but these families don't understand subtleties. They do appreciate being told where they stand, and what is expected of them.
>
> "I feel that the use of authority is one of the most valuable techniques when correctly applied. Many of the adults in problem family households are [illegible]

> in their psycho-social development; in plain English, they are kids themselves. They need and want controls. The only way I can see to help them gain in maturity is through the intelligent use of appropriate controls, accompanied by large doses of encouragement.
>
> "Casework on any level is impossible when the client has an empty stomach, needs immediate medical attention, or is in danger of losing his home. One must deal with the crisis first. The social worker who is clinically oriented, and who is inexperienced in the practical aspects of life—home management, budgeting, care of children—will have a miserable time in this kind of social casework."

Mrs. Weinandy's statements stress her efforts to work *with* problem families. A study by Willie, Wagenfeld, and Cary into the rent-paying patterns of the control and problem families points up the importance of the family consultant as an intercessor *for* her clients. By acting as an intermediary between housing management and families, she has an impact on the total social system of public housing. The family consultant's long-range goal is to induce change in the behavior of problem families. To accomplish this, she often finds it necessary to induce change in the behavior of (1) the housing project staff, (2) the Department of Social Welfare personnel, and (3) voluntary and official social service workers. Sometimes these agencies and their personnel block the achievement of "desirable" kinds of behavior by problem families.

As an intercessor, the family consultant probably has the greatest effect in facilitating "up-the-line" communication. All social systems with hierarchal positions have "down-the-line" and "up-the-line" communication activity. "Down-the-line" communication usually gets through, but messages in the other direction are often blocked. It should go without saying that the "up-the-line" message of low income problem families are frequently blocked or unheeded. They are often told by other people how they should behave, but problem families have no way of telling other people what they ought to do. The family consultant can speak in behalf of the problem families. And in doing something *for* families, she can earn the privilege of doing something *with* them and maybe even *to* them.

In addition, the Family Consultant Program provides an opportunity to take a close look at some of the differences between stable and problem families and to theorize about how the problem families came to be that way. The 92 interviews conducted with the stable and problem families at the beginning of the program are the basis for a demographic analysis made by Weinandy and Willie.

Although similar in many respects—education, occupation, religion—the stable and problem families are significantly different in family structure. A majority of the problem families are broken, having only one parent—the mother—present in the home. Much of the disintegration in family structure occurs after moving into public housing. (Another Center staff member, Dr. Helen Icken Safa, has documented this same phenomenon in San Juan and continues to explore it in Syracuse.) Inspection of applications for admission reveals approximately 85 per cent of the stable and 75 per cent of the problem households consisted of married adults with spouse present in the household. When this study was conducted after their admission to the housing project, three out of every four stable families were still intact, as compared with only two out of

DR. LEE J. CARY

every four problem families. There is also a greater tendency for the head of household to have been party to two or more marriages.

The marriages of problem families take place much earlier than those of stable families. Although problem families are younger than stable households and have been married fewer years, they nevertheless have produced more children. Evidence from official records and interviews suggests that between 10 and 15 per cent of the mothers in problem families have borne out-of-wedlock children.

The data are inadequate for firm conclusions about the causes of stability and instability among low-income families. However, they do suggest certain propositions. It seems to the investigators that neither early marriage, nor the tendency to marry more than once, nor the rapid rate of reproduction, nor the tendency to give birth to children out-of-wedlock causes stability or instability among low-income families. These appear to be effects or consequences of instability, rather than causes. The early age at which the parents in problem families marry, have children, separate, and then continue to have children suggests that their behavior is *uncontrolled* and that they are *uncommitted* to the social system.

In an effort to further assess the qualitative differences between the stable and problem families, one additional step was taken toward the close of the program. After having worked closely for nearly three years with the problem family group, the family consultant was asked to interview a group of 10 randomly selected stable families to try to derive some subjective evaluations of group differences. The interviews, which lasted from one to two hours, covered items such as financial management, systems for housekeeping, relationship with neighbors, participation in voluntary associations, educational background, and family goals. This small sample of stable families seems to support the notions of commitment and control advanced in the demographic study.

Why these differences between the attitudes and functioning of the two groups? To learn the answer requires further study of the social histories of these families. It is something more than an educated guess, however, that the life experiences of the adults in the stable group have provided them with comparatively strong and intact ego development as well as adequate socialization. Some of the respondents hinted at good standards, stability, and sound training in their own home background. If this is the real answer, then, just as we are confronted with the "vicious cycle" of hard-core problem families, so we may have a "benign spiral" of good, stable families.

PATTERNS OF POVERTY AND URBAN LIFE

Anthropologist Melvin Weiss is concerned about the growing-up process for some people who live in the city. He is particularly concerned about those adolescents and young adults who are economically poor, Negro, and who live in Syracuse, N.Y.

Casual visits, informal observation, and the literature of social criticism all indicate that the content of the socialization process for a poor Negro child appears to be radically different from that of a child reared in a white, middle-class environment. The typical white child, for instance, participates in a series of formal and informal ceremonies marking his progress into adulthood. These "rites of passage" include such things as school graduation, the first formal dance, possession of a driver's license.

and perhaps ownership of a car. All this is accompanied by parental acknowledgment of successive stages of autonomy, and the child's growing awareness of himself as an individual. Implicit, too, in middle-class life, is the increasing degree of social protection potentially available to youngsters who may engage in occasional deviant behavior.

When a white child of 10 or 12 is accused of breaking a window, his parents may punish him or defend him against an irate householder. If, at age 15 or 16, he is involved in a minor crime, his parents are almost certain to take his part. Should the same youth later participate in moderately serious criminal behavior he is likely to get much legal, financial, and moral support from his parents.

Now consider a contrasting picture. The ceremonies characteristically present in poor, urban, Negro life probably differ in two important respects. First, because of the exigencies of Negro family life in this strata of our society, there is less certainty that the "ceremonies" will ever occur. Second, these ceremonies are not likely to be consistently experienced by all children. Graduating from school, being confirmed in church, or taking part in the other rituals of growing up may be the basis of invidious distinctions between children in Negro life, rather than the quiet mark of a transition that "everyone" makes in white middle-class life. Associated with this supposed difference in ceremonial pattern is the threat of family breakup because of illness, migration, and lower frequency of marital stability. Around mid-adolescence, Negro youngsters frequently "go on their own." Though they may still sleep and eat at home, their relationship to whatever adult authority exists is no longer that of a maturing subordinate to a protective authority figure, but rather that of a disruptive, though socially fragile, peer to his parents.

Another striking difference is that a poor Negro child growing up in an urban setting is increasingly subject to coercive action by the community. He is, in effect, stripped of the protections of childhood while still an adolescent. Thus the delinquent Negro teenager is subject to reasonably mild treatment until about age 16. From then on, he may increasingly bear the full punitive weight of society and he may have to bear this weight alone, without the support of his family.

This is what growing up as a Negro appears to look like from the outside. Attempts to gain an interior view of the socialization process vary in approach and intensity. James Baldwin has provided a rich personal account in his autobiographic "Letter From a Region of My Mind." Allison Davis and Robert J. Havighurst have offered the conclusions of a study of social and ethnic differences of child rearing norms in Chicago derived from interview responses. Myrdal, Frazier, Kardiner, Drake, and Clayton are other students of modern society who have provided a body of literature on various aspects of Negro life. Their approaches range from the individualized psychoanalytic of Abraham Kardiner to the broad spectrum societal analysis of Gunnar Myrdal. The specific point of departure for Mr. Weiss' study, however, is the work of John Roberts and Oscar Lewis. Roberts, some 15 years ago, initiated descriptive studies of socialization patterns with the material collected on the daily round in Navaho and Zuni households. More recently, Lewis presented, in his book *Five Families,* a fine-grained picture of a day in the life of each of five Mexican families. He followed this with *The Children of Sanchez,* a collection of autobiographic accounts of the children's lives in a single Mexican family.

MELVIN J. WEISS

Mr. Weiss is focusing on two Negro families in Syracuse similar in family structure and economic level. His aim is to provide, by intensive observation, a picture of the process of growing up in a life of poverty. The nature and size of the study population is of some importance. The method of intense and prolonged observation usually means that only a small number of people can be studied. This, of course, imposes certain constraints on any generalizations that might follow. It seems reasonable to assume, however, that the Negro population of Syracuse is not radically different from the lower-class Negro minorities found in urban centers in the Northeastern United States. We have no reason to consider the families selected as atypical.

The project design concentrates upon the social life and family behavior of two extended Negro families and all of their associated households, with particular attention given to family members 14 to 24 years of age. Data is collected in three settings: household, neighborhood, and community. Beyond the daily round at home, the study seeks information about typical experiences on street corners, in "quiet pool rooms," and other neighborhood settings, and about relationships to the larger setting beyond the immediate neighborhood. By focusing on the period from puberty to early adulthood, the study hopes to systematically examine how the child becomes an adult.

Now in the planning phase, the research currently involves only one study family. Considerable time has been spent in gaining entry to the home and in establishing, first, "passive observer" and then "participant observer" relationships. Field notes and photographic records have been made of the family's eventful relocation to a new home, of the surrounding neighborhood and its centers of sociability, and of family contacts with the larger community. Building upon the knowledge gained in these initial efforts, the next phase of the research calls for a selection of the second study family and an increased tempo in observational activities. As now projected, this main portion of the study would continue for at least two years.

This initial study should contribute to the literature of comparative socialization, as well as providing an analysis of the processes of maturation from youngster to young adult in a low-income, Negro population. As Mr. Weiss plans later comparisons of the Syracuse study families with Negro and white households in other cities, the study also lays the foundation for wide extensions into the culture and meaning of poverty.

ONE-PARENT FAMILY COUNCIL

In January of 1960 Dr. Bernice M. Wright presented the Youth Development Center staff with a situation that was causing her increasing concern. Dr. Wright was worried about one-parent families, those mothers and fathers who had become parents-without-partners because of death, divorce, or separation. In her dual role as parent education specialist with the Center and as a professor in the College of Home Economics, Dr. Wright was receiving more and more distress signals. There were telephone calls and letters to the College—"I'm a widow with a 15-year old boy and I don't know what to *do* . . ." There were the quiet pleas for help after a community meeting—"I've just been divorced and your talk made me think you might be able to help me and my daughter. . . ." There were the knocks on the office door—"Is there any kind of course up here that will teach me how to be a mother *and* a father?" Would the Center be interested, Dr. Wright asked, in helping the College of Home Economics conduct some kind of meeting or institute or discussion session for these parents?

The first Institute on the One-Parent Family was held in March, 1960. Dr. Gertrude Goller Benton of Western Reserve University was featured speaker for each of two sessions. The first, a Friday evening affair, drew a capacity audience of social workers, school personnel, clergymen, and agency executives. The second, on Saturday morning, was an unknown quantity until meeting time. This session was for the parents themselves. But would they come? Had they heard about it? Had the notices in church bulletins, on school memos, and in the newspapers been seen and noted? Would these heads of one-parent households *want* to come to a meeting and discuss their problems?

Dr. Bernice M. Wright with Center staff members Louis Kriesberg, Lee J. Cary, and S. M. Miller.

They did. The greatest difficulty at this meeting was getting it stopped. Each of the 80 parents who attended discovered they were not alone, their problems were not always unique, and there were people willing to listen. As an experimental venture into mass therapy, the Institute was a resounding success. But mass therapy was not precisely what the Institute sponsors had in mind. The original plan for "doing something" was to draw one-parent families together to explore the nature of their problems, to see what needs were unrecognized or unmet by local social agencies, to effect a greater working relationship between parents and community resources, and to consider possibilities for research in this area. The parents, however, had different ideas. They had found one another, and they had found Dr. Wright.

A second Institute was held in June and drew even larger numbers. By July, Institute participants had formed the One-Parent Family Council, with Dr. Wright as program consultant and staff members from the College of Home Economics and the Youth Development Center serving in advisory roles.

In the three years the Council has been in existence, it has served nearly 400 area parents. Membership is open to any father or mother who must carry parental responsibilities without his or her marriage partner. The Council seeks to aid in this endeavor by exploring the needs of child and parent and by helping the parent successfully adjust to the new situation.

The monthly Council meetings, held at the Y.M.C.A. Youth Center, are designed to help parents benefit from each other's experiences and to gain a better understanding of the problems and potentials of one-parent family life. Sessions may feature a guest speaker, a panel discussion, a small-groups workshop, a film and question-and-answer period, or a family-night social gathering. Past meetings have been devoted to topics such as "What Happens to a Child Who Is Pressured to Achieve?", "Should the Discipline be Different in a One-Parent Family?", "Vacationing with Children," "The Parent and Re-Marriage," a sports night for parents and children, and a workshop on the legal and economic problems faced by one-parent families. A feature of the 1962 program year was a special four-part workshop on "The Adolescent in the One-Parent Family." Topics included physical development, emotional and social growth, and work opportunities and career choices.

If a high level of activity and continued interest in an organization indicate success, then the One-Parent Family Council must be judged as eminently successful. However, any accurate evaluation of the program's effectiveness is difficult at this time. Little research has been conducted into the organization itself or its membership, and the Youth Development Center's minimal contributions of clerical and consultant staff are seen as part of the Center's service function. Nevertheless, a few tentative observations can be put forth.

First, leadership for an organization such as the One-Parent Family Council can present a difficult problem. The Council's goal is to draw into membership a cross-section of the eligible population, representing all economic, social, and educational levels. In achieving this goal the Council finds itself with (1) the well-educated, self-actualizing individual who is already so involved in home and career that there is little time to devote to Council leadership, and (2) the culturally-disadvantaged person who has the time but few leadership skills. Further compounding the difficulty is the fact that the Council is not designed to be an organization with staying power—members come and go as they pass through different stages of growth in their one-parent situation. To date the problem has been met, if not completely solved, by achieving a continuity in outside personnel. Dr. Wright has served as program consultant and advisor since the Council's founding, with other staff members brought in as need develops.

Second, trained discussion leaders are needed to conduct Council programs. The persons served by a One-Parent Family Council are involved in stress situations. As a result, discussion sessions can easily develop into outpourings of grief, guilt, and self-incrimination unless conducted by a skilled outside leader who can maintain group perspective and balance.

Third, a one-parent organization needs community support if it is to survive. This is particularly true if the group does not wish to limit itself to a membership drawn solely from the middle or upper socio-economic classes. The financial and program resources of a Council are limited; the group badly needs a sponsor during its formative days.

A detailed discussion of the One-Parent Family Council and its community role can be found in the Center paper, "Family Life Education and the One-Parent Family," by Dr. Wright and Dr. Lee J. Cary.

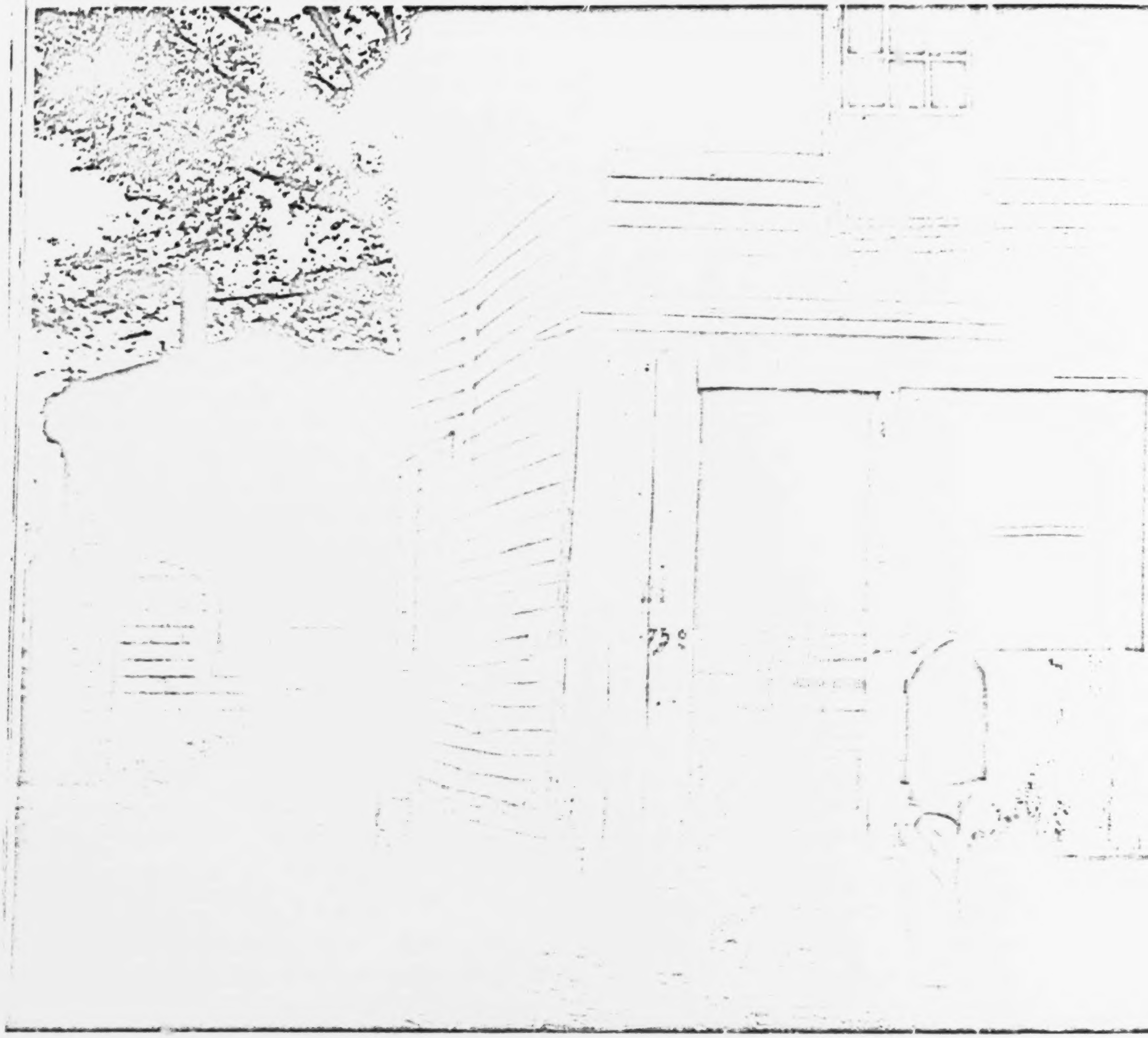
COMPARATIVE SOCIAL MOBILITY: OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS AND SONS IN 20 COUNTRIES

A recurring theme in much of the Center's research is that of social mobility, the strivings of persons to "get ahead" in life. While several staff members are exploring mobility patterns within the confines of Syracuse and Onondaga County, Dr. S. M. Miller is extending this topic to international scope. His study, supported by the National Science Foundation, examines social mobility in 20 countries of Europe, North and South America, and Asia. A continuation of Dr. Miller's earlier work for UNESCO, this current research is based on data made available by investigators in the various countries and in published material.

A study of social mobility is a study of basic changes in the occupational and social structure of a society. The researcher looks at society in motion, examining the character of a social system on such fundamental issues as "openness" and equality of opportunity. By comparing nations, one can see the interweaving of economic and social variables in the operation of a society.

Specifically, Dr. Miller is analyzing the impact of the occupational level of fathers on the occupational level of their sons. His goal is to explain the effect of economic and educational forces on the inter-generational relationship. Findings to date show that the rate of economic growth does not determine the extent and pattern of mobility in a given society. This is in contrast with the thesis advanced by sociologist Seymour Lipset and his colleagues, who assert that social mobility is closely related to the level of industrial development in a society. Dr. Miller is currently studying the impact of a society's educational system upon the rate of social ascent. Future investigations will concentrate upon the relationships between social mobility and political stability.

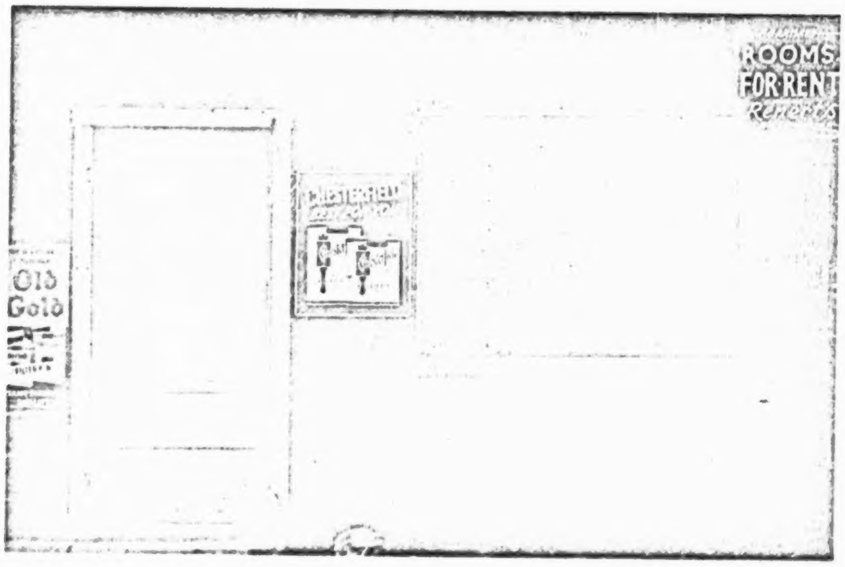
YOUTH PROBLEMS: THE COMMUNITY SETTING



HOUSING AND FAMILY LIFE

PUBLIC HOUSING AND SOCIAL MOBILITY

The Center's most ambitious research study was launched because a graduate assistant asked a question. The student, who was familiar with Syracuse's public housing projects, was curious about some "differences in atmosphere" he perceived between two projects. The residents of one seemed to be generally passive and docile, while tenants at another appeared to be "pushy" and characterized by a good deal of striving and straining. Why?



Perhaps the graduate assistant's perception was faulty and such differences did not exist. On the other hand, some staff members suggested that differences might be due to the types of neighborhoods in which the projects were located. The project with "pushy" tenants was situated in a middle-class residential area; the second project was bounded by slums. Possibly public housing tenants in the middle-class residential area had, as a result of their middle-class contacts, become socially mobile, and their pushiness was simply a sign of their efforts to get ahead in the world. If this were true, it could have important consequences for affecting life-styles, values, and actions of those families low on the socio-economic ladder who seek permanent or temporary haven in public housing.

Suppose, pondered the staff, you could somehow delve into this situation to find out what does happen. Suppose families being relocated from decaying areas of the city could move into middle-class neighborhoods, where the stores and schools and

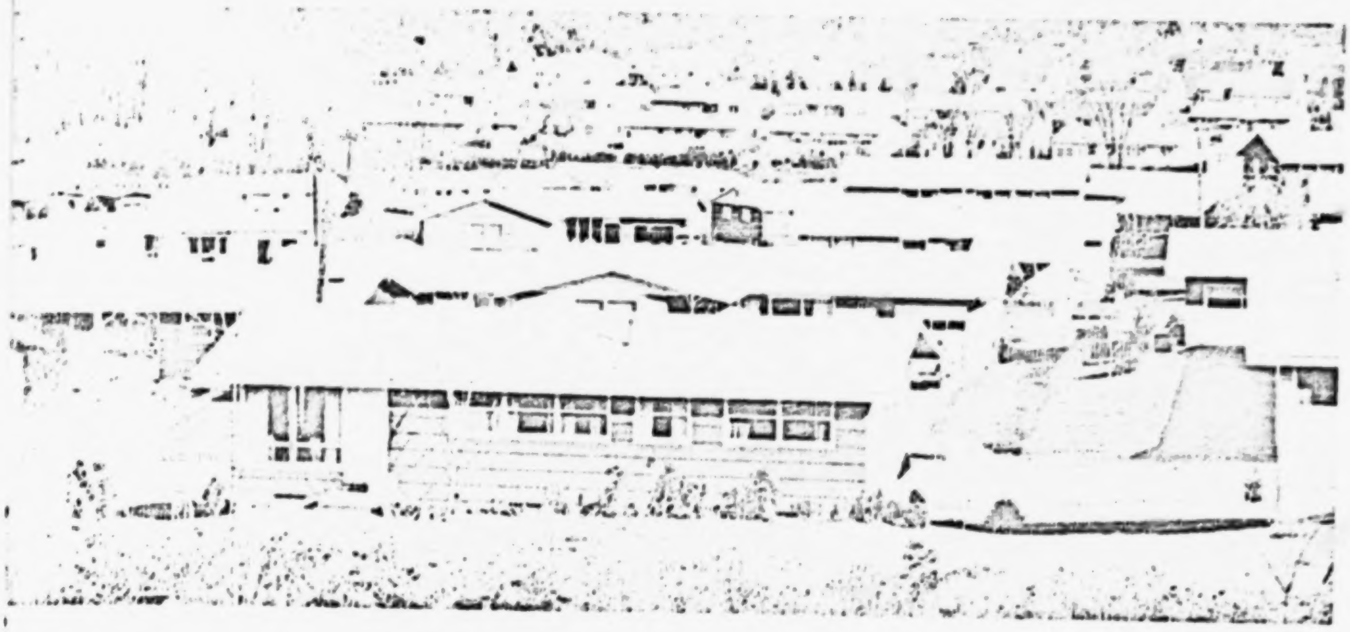
DR. SEYMOUR S. BELLIN

churches and people are quite different from the old environment. Would the new families, and particularly the children, begin to take on middle-class values and aspire to middle-class ways of life? Or would the contacts between the two groups be so negligible that each formed his own little world? Or would the values of the lower class begin to dominate the entire neighborhood—as the study director later expressed it, would the middle-class boys and girls suddenly learn to shoot craps?

The result of this pondering is a four-year natural experiment into the influence of social milieu on human values and behavior. It take as its focus four public housing projects in Syracuse, two located in lower-class areas and two in middle-class neighborhoods. The aim of the study is to compare the impact of lower- and middle-class environments on the attitudes and actions associated with different social classes. Particular attention is given to issues affecting youth. This research is made possible by a grant from the Ford Foundation and the active cooperation of the Syracuse Housing Authority. The main study, "Public Housing and Social Mobility: Patterns of Growing Up in the City," is divided into a cross-sectional, a longitudinal, and a participant observation phase. In addition, three substudies have been incorporated into the research design. One, an analysis of urban renewal relocatees, has been financed from the Center's basic research budget. A second, focusing on fatherless families, is conducted under a grant from the Social Security Administration. A third, which compares the Syracuse study population with residents of a public housing project and a shanty-town in Puerto Rico, is sponsored in part by the National Institute of Mental Health.

Three staff members share responsibility for this research effort. Dr. Seymour Bellin and Dr. Louis Kriesberg, co-directors, supervise the longitudinal and cross-sectional phase; Dr. Helen Icken Safa is responsible for the participant observation and life study material.

Work on the main study was launched in 1960, with the first year and a half spent in staffing, in consulting with local officials, in developing the study design, in accumulating baseline data, in instrument construction, and in drawing the sample population



The first field operation began during the summer of 1962, when researchers started interviewing families selected for the longitudinal sample. This phase of the study calls for 160 family units, with equal representation given to white, Negro, complete, and fatherless families. In addition, the families are distributed equally among the four public housing projects through a system of randomized assignments carried out by the Syracuse Housing Authority. All are successful public housing applicants. The "first wave" interview takes place immediately after the family is accepted for public housing and before moving into the project; the "second wave" interview is held one year later. Originally, the study team estimated that it would take two years to acquire all of the families needed to meet the requirements of the stratified sample. Research designs, however, are not immune from outside influences, and in this case the speed-up of Syracuse's urban renewal program has had a profound influence. Under current city plans, residents of the renewal area who face imminent displacement are given priority for public housing vacancies. Most of the displaced families are Negro. As a consequence, one grouping called for by the study—white complete families taking vacancies in a predominately non-white housing propect—is filling much more slowly than anticipated.

The population under study in the cross-sectional phase is larger and more varied than the longitudinal sample. In the latter, 160 families admitted to public housing are being studied for one year. In the former, approximately 1,200 individuals are taking part in 90-minute interviews collected over a three-month period. This sample is composed of persons living in the four public housing projects and in the surrounding neighborhoods. Interviews with and observations of these families should provide a general picture of the way in which they adapt, or fail to adapt, to the housing culture.

The third phase of the study can be likened to the work of a photographer who first captures a panorama, then moves in for a close-up. In this case, participant observers are detailed to capture the wide view; life histories provide portraits of randomly-selected project families. Participant observers have become tenants in all four housing projects for periods ranging from three months to a year. One observer worked as a

DR. LOUIS KRIESBERG

project maintenance man, with the experience used as the basis for a Master's thesis in sociology.[1] Another became an assistant playground supervisor and confidant to a group of teenage boys. (The hazards of research were demonstrated when he was arrested in line of duty.) The life histories, obtained through hours of unstructured interviewing, attempt to probe the respondent's image of public housing and his aspirations for advancement.

All three phases of the social mobility study are still in the field-work stage. Preliminary analyses of data will begin in 1964, with the first published findings expected during the coming year. The hope is that this major research effort will produce new insights into the patterns and processes of growing up in two quite different environments, with special emphasis placed on the points and times of stress. Given this knowledge, it should be possible to locate strategic points of intervention and to eventually find ways of deflecting anti-social behavior into more approved channels.

AN ANALYSIS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND ETHNIC AREAS

The social mobility and public housing study has been greatly aided by an analysis of population distribution in Onondaga County completed by Dr. Charles V. Willie and Morton O. Wagenfeld. Their work is reported in the Center publication, *Socio-Economic and Ethnic Areas, Syracuse and Onondaga County, N.Y., 1960.*

In making their analyses, Willie and Wagenfeld constructed a five-factor index to pinpoint relatively homogeneous socio-economic areas. Items in the index are (1) percentage of craftsmen, operatives, service workers, and laborers; (2) median school year completed by the adult population over 25 years old; (3) estimated market value of owned homes; (4) gross monthly rental for tenant-occupied dwellings; and (5) percentage of sound dwelling units. Based on an analysis of the frequency distributions of index scores and on field inspections, five clusters of census tracts are identified as comprising five socio-economic areas.

In addition, when a particular racial or ethnic population in a Syracuse census tract is three or more times greater than the average of that population in the total city, the tract is designated as part of a racial or ethnic neighborhood. The total Negro population of Syracuse is included in this analysis, with data on foreign-born and native-born persons of foreign-born parents used to delineate Italian, German, Polish, Irish, and Russian (Jewish) neighborhoods.

Besides its immediate application to Center studies, the *Socio-Economic and Ethnic Areas* report is proving to be a useful tool for other researchers in demography and community analysis, for regional planners, and for persons responsible for the programming and implementation of local social service projects. Like the "Delinquency Profiles," this study serves as a baseline of fact—a point of departure for other work. It provides descriptions of community areas used in the Center's research on school dropouts, in the planning of the Mayor's Commission for Youth, and in the debates related to racial desegregation in Syracuse.

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[1] George A. Freskos, "The Occupational Role of the Maintenance Man in Public Housing: A Functional Analysis of Organizational Change" (unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Sociology, Syracuse University, 1962).

While the social mobility study was still in the planning stage, the Syracuse Department of Urban Improvement made it possible for the Center to conduct a pilot study among a randomly selected sample of households in the Near East Side Urban Renewal Site. This study provided an opportunity to construct and pretest instruments later modified for use in the cross-sectional and longitudinal phases of the public housing research. The questionnaire used in the urban renewal study touched upon social and economic characteristics of relocatees, housing conditions, housing aspirations, social mobility patterns, and evaluative orientations toward the world in general. One hundred and twenty-one usable interviews were obtained from the original sample of 160 households, including fatherless families, couples with children, and elderly individuals and couples.

Though analysis of data is still incomplete, findings to date present some interesting implications for community planners. Briefly, the data point to the following tentative conclusions:

1. Despite special communication efforts on the part of the Relocation Office and the Department of Urban Improvement, a high proportion of the urban renewal area residents display elemental ignorance of the renewal program, its purposes, and its special services for displaced persons.

2. Knowledge about public housing—rules of eligibility, standards for tenants, and the characteristics of project residents—varies considerably among the urban renewal residents who are potential clients for public housing. This knowledge is affected by interest, by imminent need, by experience (having once lived in public housing), and by personal ties to people who do live in public housing. The informal network of friends and relatives living in public housing is especially important in building favorable attitudes—a satisfied resident of public housing is its best advertisement.

3. As might be expected, Negro families in the urban renewal area pay more money than do white families for the same or inferior housing, they have smaller dwelling units, and they live under more crowded conditions. In addition, the family that is poor and Negro faces a much harder time in finding a new place to live than does the family that is poor and white.

4. Despite their admitted difficulties in locating a new home, not all of the very poor urban renewal families are interested in public housing. This disinterest can be traced to the unfavorable image they hold of public housing, its "welfare" stigma, its aura of regimentation, and the implied loss of autonomy, privacy, and self-respect.

5. The net impact of the extensive urban renewal program under way in Syracuse is to greatly increase the need for low-income housing at the same time as this housing is being removed from the marketplace.

6. Many families who need public housing are either not eligible or are rejected because of the real problems they would present to the Housing Authority if admitted in large numbers. Clearly, the burden of coping with these families cannot fall upon the Housing Authority alone. More attention should be given to anticipating the implications

of urban renewal programs for the housing agencies who will be asked to give priority to displaced families and for the social service agencies who will be asked to aid the "multi-problem" family in adapting to the new environment. Each agency, preoccupied with the satisfactory discharge of its particular mandate and usually overwhelmed with current demands, often fails to appreciate the needs and capacities of other agencies. The Center's work with a variety of social service organizations makes evident the need for coordination and cooperation on a long-range basis. Such coordination should embrace not only local agencies, but state and federal agencies as well.

7. Many poor and uneducated white and Negro families in this study hold high aspirations for their children. But though hopes are high, these families recognize the barriers imposed by reality. The distinguishing factor in the goals set by lower-class and middle-class parents is not "height" but "depth"—how low on a scale of income, prestige, and authority they would be satisfied to see their children reach.

A more detailed discussion of these and other points is given in the Center working paper, "Housing Needs and Aspirations of an Urban Renewal Population" by Seymour S. Bellin, Joan Weber, and Jerome Cohen.

FATHERLESS FAMILIES AND HOUSING: A STUDY IN DEPENDENCY

Life without father is becoming a reality for more and more American children. Most off-the-cuff opinions hold that this is a "bad" thing, though the extent and kind of "badness" is generally unknown. The aim of the Youth Development Center's research into fatherless families and dependency, an integral part of the public housing and social mobility project, is to find out what life is like for mother and child, particularly when the family budget is limited.

The study, directed by Dr. Irwin Deutscher and Laurence T. Cagle and supported by the Social Security Administration, gives special attention to the effects of different types of economic situations. Some families receive Aid to Dependent Children; some are supported by a working mother; some receive partial or full support from relatives; some rely on a patchwork of often unpredictable sources of income. Given these varying conditions, what happens to the mother and child's sense of "family" and to their relationships with others in the community? What are the consequences when mother tries to act as a substitute father? To what extent, and under what conditions, do neighbors provide mutual aid patterns that help fill the gap? In general, what are the consequences of economic deprivation among fatherless families?

As the study sample is drawn from the larger social mobility study population, it will be possible to compare fatherless families with complete families and with households composed of elderly persons. Data are still being collected from both the cross-sectional and longitudinal samples, and few findings are available at this time. However, an analysis of a group of fatherless families living in Syracuse's Near East Side Urban Renewal Site provides some leads to housing aspirations, styles of social life, and social mobility.

In contrast to complete families, fatherless families in this area have lower incomes and more children, the mother is older, and the family has moved more during the five years preceding the study. Before urban renewal entered the picture, more fatherless than complete families planned to stay at their present location. When forced to move, they intend to seek rental housing. Few have hopes of ever buying property, in sharp contrast to the home-owning expectations of complete families. These fatherless families are much more interested in public housing than are complete families, and are more inclined to regard such a move as a permanent solution to their housing problems.

The social contacts of fatherless families seem to be slightly more restricted to the immediate neighborhood than are those of complete families, though contacts with relatives are approximately the same for both groups. Compared with complete families, fatherless families more often take part in activities designed for both children and adults, such as the programs of neighborhood social agencies. But though there are fewer contacts with strictly "adult" organizations, when fatherless families do have such contacts their participation is greater than that of complete families.

The goals of fatherless families and their interest in moving up in the world appear to be related to race in several important ways. Negro households reflect greater general concern for social mobility than do their white low-income counterparts; Negroes are more likely than whites to feel that "getting ahead" is important; they more often state a preference for a job that provides opportunities to "get ahead" over a job that provides "security"; and they have higher educational aspirations for their children (although their expectations are not as high as their aspirations). Generally, Negroes are as optimistic as whites regarding their chances of attaining what they see as the "best life" during the next five years.

Regardless of race, fatherless families perceive themselves as having a more limited potential for social mobility than do complete families. Few of the fatherless families think they are moving up in the world: 88 per cent see themselves as being either immobile or downwardly mobile. Nevertheless, the fatherless families place just as much emphasis on getting ahead as do the complete families and appear more willing to make certain sacrifices to get ahead than do their complete-family counterparts. The data suggest that the fatherless families perceive themselves as immobile while retaining a commitment to the value of social mobility.

Although mothers in the one-parent families insist that their children's chances of getting ahead are as good as anybody's, they reflect both low aspirations and low expectations for the educational advancement of their progeny. These mothers also accept a wider range of occupations as being suitable for a son than do the mothers in complete families. It appears that the fatherless family, while clinging to the American dream of social mobility as an abstract value, is willing to settle for less than the ideal.

During the coming year, a portion of the life-history interviewing in the social mobility study will focus on fatherless families. Among the areas to be explored are the following: (1) In cases where the family break is not due to death, what are the steps leading to the formation of fatherless families? At what stage in the life cycle does the break occur and how does it come about? (2) Has the absence of the father led to the increased authority of the mother, or has she turned to a greater reliance on outside agents? (3) Who are the models for children in fatherless families? Is the image of the father positive, negative, or completely forgotten? (4) Are most fatherless families necessarily immobile or downwardly mobile? If not, what are the distinguishing characteristics of the upwardly mobile?

DR. IRWIN DEUTSCHER

A more detailed presentation of the fatherless families and dependency study, including additional data on social mobility, housing aspirations, and social participation, is given in a series of three working papers prepared by Dr. Deutscher and Mr. Cagle.

FAMILY STRUCTURE AND PUBLIC HOUSING IN AN URBANIZING SOCIETY

Anthropologist Helen Icken Safa is a woman concerned about other women—particularly those who are heads of households. Interest in the fatherless family—or, to use her terminology, the female-based household—took her to Puerto Rico in 1960 to study the changes in family structure that resulted when families from slums or shanty towns were moved into public housing projects. Since joining the staff of the Youth Development Center, Dr. Safa has continued this line of investigation as part of the public housing and social mobility study. A grant from the National Institute of Mental Health permitted Dr. Safa to return to Puerto Rico during the summer of 1963 to collect further data concerning the high percentage of female-based households in public housing and to begin a comparison of the San Juan and Syracuse populations.

One of Dr. Safa's conclusions is that public housing serves as an institutional support for female-based households. Not only does such housing attract and hold a high proportion of these family groups, but families also become female-based after they move into the project. This same finding is reported in the Willie-Weinandy study of "stable" and "problem" families in public housing described earlier in this report. Without further research, however, we are left wondering whether the rate of marital breakup is higher in public housing than in a comparable low-income group living outside the project. Even if the rate were higher for project families, we would still have to ask whether this is due to (1) the type of population recruited for public housing which, because of economic conditions and marital history may be more subject to breakup than other families, or (2) whether public housing itself contributes to marital instability by weakening the role of the husband in project families.

R. HELEN ICKEN SAFA

A move to public housing, says Dr. Safa, makes it easier for a woman and her children to function independently of the man. She no longer must rely on her husband to provide living quarters, and she can turn to management for the home's repair and maintenance. She frequently becomes more effective than her husband in dealing with the project staff (often composed largely of women), thereby usurping much of the man's role as family spokesman to the outside world. The availability of public welfare assistance further weakens the man's position as economic mainstay. As a result, these and other factors may so contribute to the husband's feeling of being a household appendage that separation or desertion follows. When this happens, the family is almost invariably trapped. Hopes of a better tomorrow are trampled in the desperate effort to "hang on." (Dr. Safa's findings, presented in a series of working papers, on the immobility or downward mobility resulting from family breakup are similar to those obtained by Deutscher and Cagle in their exploratory research on fatherless families in a Syracuse urban renewal district.)

Some families, however, come up against these same difficulties and still manage to survive as a complete unit. Some not only survive but inch ahead. Residents of public housing project X, located in a middle-class Syracuse neighborhood, provide an example of this type of stability-with-slow-advancement. Whether found in Syracuse or

Puerto Rico, these households are better described as "working class" rather than "lower class." The adult members have steady jobs, a basic education that usually includes some high school, and incomes that permit them to taste some of the luxuries of life—an occasional night on the town, a bicycle for the children at Christmas, trips to the hairdresser. Life centers around the nuclear family, though there is perhaps less emphasis on the conjugal relationship as one would find in the American middle class. Family life tends to be stable and harmonious, with all members geared to a goal of "comfort" with moderate advancement.

On the other hand, members of families in project Y, surrounded by a deteriorating neighborhood, seem to be constantly at odds with each other. Even if one member of the family should prove to be enterprising, he is given little support or recognition. Not only has the father abdicated his role—as in the Puerto Rican project households—but the mother seems to have given up, too. She tends to show little concern for her children's welfare and to concentrate on gratifying her own desires through alcohol, sex, and conspicuous consumption. Families are often on a hand-to-mouth existence, even when their incomes would permit a more adequate level of living, because of completely unplanned expenditures. Excessive installment buying leaves the family unable to meet emergencies such as illness or unemployment. Thus, even if they do get ahead for a while, any crisis sets them right back where they started.

According to Dr. Safa, family organization would appear to be one of the key variables affecting a family's potential for social mobility. All of the families in the underprivileged class face recurring crises of illness, unemployment, poor school performance, and so on. Most of them also seem to be aware of the success goals set by the larger community. But they differ radically in their capacities to realize these goals and to meet crises. When families are disorganized, all energies are dissipated and rarely add up to any substantial gain. Where the family acts as a unified whole, however, it is able to withstand difficulties and to push slowly ahead.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL ACTION

Most of the studies described in this section are part of the Center's ongoing research; it will be months, and in some cases years, before the last data analysis is run and the final project report written. As tentative findings come to light, however, the Center attempts to feed this information to appropriate authorities at the local, state, and national levels charged with policy decisions and program planning. Data obtained during the course of the public housing and urban renewal studies have been made available to New York State's Temporary Commission on Low-Income Housing. Information on female-based households in Puerto Rican public housing projects has been given to the Research Office of the Urban Renewal and Housing Administration of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. The Syracuse Housing Authority has considered Center findings on strategic "gatekeepers" in the housing application process in revising intake procedures. The periodic reports of the Family Consultant Service have been helpful in evaluating, and in some instances revising, housing management's relationships with tenants. In addition, knowledge gained in the urban renewal and relocation studies has led to the involvement of some Center staff members in local civil rights movements aimed at alleviating discrimination in housing, employment, and educational opportunities.

YOUTH PROBLEMS: POVERTY AND SOCIAL ACTION PRO MS

POVERTY AND SOCIAL ACTION PROGRAMS

In preparing for this five-year report of Center activities, members of the senior staff were asked to respond to a somewhat soul-searching question: "What have you learned from your research and activities at the Youth Development Center?" The answers, as could be expected from the nature of the Center, covered considerable territory, from data on infant mortality rates to social work techniques found effective in aiding multi-problem families. A single theme, however, seemed to run through the majority of reports; as one staff member expressed it, "I have learned a good deal about poverty and how it affects individuals, families, and persons in the helping professions."

Concerned as it is with the urban condition and the life and times of young people in the city, much of the Center's work necessarily impinges upon the fact of poverty. Whether talking about delinquency rates or school programs for the culturally deprived or desegregation or fatherless families or urban renewal, one eventually comes to the economic facts of life. Two staff members—Dr. Warren C. Haggstrom and Dr. S. M. Miller—have elected this area as a major concern.

Dr. Haggstrom is a social worker and social psychologist. For nearly ten years he has been associated with two types of efforts to "help the poor." One is the conventional social work activity, the other is social action undertaken by the poor in their own behalf. He believes the latter approach to be the most practical and efficient method of attack. The key issue, to Dr. Haggstrom, is not so much poverty per se as enforced dependency. The solution he suggests is to reduce the financial and moral costs of poverty by providing afflicted persons with the resources to undertake successful social action according to their own perceived needs and goals, to grow from dependency to interdependency with the larger community.

Dr. S. M. Miller is an economist and sociologist. Particularly concerned with lower and working class families, his career has encompassed an interest in the labor movement, in political action, in social mobility, and in the consequences for a democratic society of a "have" and "have not" economy. Dr. Miller's work leads him to the conclusion that neighborhood social action programs, though important, are limited in what they can accomplish because many of the problems attacked defy solution at the local level. He suggests the linking of local actions to broader national concerns through increased political activity and leverage.

The views of these two men converge on many points, differ on others. Because both philosophies are shaping a variety of Center programs and commitments, a summary of each "action" school is presented in the following pages.

POVERTY AND NEIGHBORHOOD SOCIAL ACTION[1]

Dr. Haggstrom's position on social action programs is based on the historical doctrine of self-help. Traditionally this doctrine has gained prominence in rapidly industrialized societies presenting many opportunities for individual advancement. According to the self-help thesis, *anyone*, given enough time and enough effort, could achieve success. Thus, to be poor could have either of two meanings. On the one hand, poverty was regarded as the original accompaniment of the highest development of character; the struggling poor who were later to become successful were most worthy of respect. On the other hand, poverty indefinitely prolonged might mean a character defect; a lack of will power. Poverty, therefore, was ambiguous. From the fact of poverty alone one could reach no conclusions about virtue. However, the combination of (1) an economy with limited opportunities for success, and (2) the belief in equal opportunity for success according to merit, made inevitable an assault on the self-esteem of the permanently unsuccessful.

Most of today's poor, no matter how imbued with self-help ideas, are heavily dependent on outside forces. In many places, a poor person is much more likely to be subject to police interrogation and search than is a member of a middle-class family. Urban renewal programs periodically disrupt the neighborhoods of poverty, scattering families in accordance with standards that the poor do not understand or support. Schools are either impervious to the concerns of the low-income families whose children attend or else may seek to "lead" by imposing school standards and definitions on the neighborhoods. Settlement houses run recreation programs that meet their own traditional criteria, but neighborhood youth often do not understand these criteria. The poor who seek employment must find it in a dwindling supply of jobs available to unskilled and semi-skilled persons. The securing of public assistance is a humiliating experience at best for people holding to self-help ideas. The impersonal application procedure and the complex agency rules combine to place the economic foundation of many families at the mercy of completely incomprehensible forces.

DR. DAVID E. HUNT
DR. WARREN C. HAGGSTROM

The strong and affluent outside community is not without programs to alleviate the signs of poverty. Hence, the recommendations for improved law enforcement, public welfare, public housing, social settlements, higher horizons educational programs, social work with "hard core" families, urban renewal, "clean-up, paint-up, fix-up" programs, block and neighborhood organizations, and so on. According to Dr. Haggstrom, all of these plans and programs usually share two characteristics: (1) they are initiated and supported from outside the neighborhoods of poverty and imposed on the poor, and (2) they fail to make any lasting impact on neighborhoods of poverty. Although a few persons become better off and leave the neighborhoods, the majority remain poor, continuing an atmosphere of apathy, disorganization, and hostility toward the programs designed to rescue them. The programs do have one important effect, however. They enable the stronger community to believe that something is being done about the social problem of poverty, reducing guilt and shame to such an extent that there remains little motivation to develop some effective means to bring the poor into the larger society.

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[1] For a more detailed presentation of Dr. Haggstrom's views, see "The Power of the Poor" in *Mental Health of the Poor: New Psychotherapeutic Approaches to Low Income Clients*, ed. Frank Riessman, Jerome Cohen, and Arthur Pearl (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe), (forthcoming).

All of this suggests to Dr. Haggstrom that the problem of the poor is not so much that of poverty as of a particularly difficult variety of situational dependency—a helplessness of the poor to affect many important social factors in their lives. But with increased money the poor could at least be better able to cope with these outside forces. What, then, is the relationship between the poverty of the poor and situational dependency? Dr. Haggstrom suggests this general criterion: poverty is the relative extent to which one's lack of money interferes with one's opportunity for self-realization; the extent to which the shortage of one kind of generalized power makes impossible the living of a self-realized life.

Since there are several kinds of generalized power, Dr. Haggstrom believes that an absence of money is often replaceable, insofar as the psychological reactions to powerlessness are concerned. An American Indian who lives in poverty may have considerable influence through authority relationships traditional in his culture. Members of religious orders who have taken vows of poverty remain able to exercise influence through their order and through relationships of interdependence with colleagues. The college student with a very low income has influence through the expectations of his future social position.

In our society, inner worth as expressed in action, striving and struggle is held eventually to result in the attainment of aspirations. If one is not successful, one is viewed as worthwhile so long, and only so long, as one struggles. The poor tend to be regarded as failures, as not struggling, and thus as worthless. This sense of worthlessness pervades the conceptions that others have of the poor and, to some extent, the conceptions that the poor have of themselves. Dr. Haggstrom believes that one way to remedy this situation is for the poor to undertake social action that redefines them as potentially worthwhile and individually more powerful. To be effective, such social action should have the following characteristics:

1. The poor see themselves as the source of the action.
2. The action affects in major ways the preconceptions, values, or interests of institutions and persons defining the poor.
3. The action demands much in effort and skill, or in other ways becomes salient to major areas of the personalities of the poor.
4. The action ends in success.
5. The successful, self-originated, important action increases the potential worth or individual power of persons who are poor.

Civic-minded orators frequently declare that "we know the needs of the poor." Dr. Haggstrom is quick to concur with the needs invariably listed—better education, more jobs, greater opportunities. But, he points out, there is a considerable gap between observing a need and knowing how it can in practice be met. Ignored is the problem of securing motivation. Regardless of the underlying needs of the poor, they will initially act only in relation to needs that they perceive. Programs are ineffective that do not relate to *perceived* needs in *a way that is perceived by the poor to be appropriate.*

Dr. Haggstrom insists there is a way to avoid these handicaps. The objectives of socializing agencies in areas of poverty can be accomplished with more certainty, in less time, and at less expense, to the extent that the poor are able to influence the agencies that are to "provide opportunities" for them. For this reason, the only initial additional resources that a community should make available to neighborhoods of poverty should be on a temporary basis: organizers who will enable the neighborhoods quickly to create powerful, independent, democratic organizations of the poor. These organizations will themselves then seek from the rest of the community the resources necessary for the solution of neighborhood problems. Agencies to provide training and education and opportunities can be developed under the control of the neighborhoods of poverty, thereby ensuring that the poor are in interdependent, rather than dependent, positions in relation to the agencies. This method would meet the professed objectives of most communities since it would effectively motivate the poor to maximum use of opportunities, since the requirements of professional practice would ensure the quality of services rendered, and since the communities state their intention of not allowing their help to become an instrument of domination.

The work of Saul Alinsky and other social actionists makes clear that powerful organizations can be formed in areas of poverty that successfully solve the social problems associated with poverty by inexpensive and peaceful means. Dr. Haggstrom is convinced that the initiation of such organizations offers the best hope for dealing with the seemingly intractable social problems of the poor.

AN ANALYSIS OF URBAN SOCIAL ACTION PROGRAMS

To further document the case for social action programs and to gather descriptive, comparative accounts of current projects, Dr. Haggstrom has spent much of the past year and a half traveling to the sites of self-help activities. For three weeks in November and December of 1962 he divided his time between the streets of New York City and the reading rooms of the Library of Congress. This preliminary survey, based on a review of the literature and interviews with social actionists, produced 493 pages of notes. From May through September of 1963, Dr. Haggstrom paid detailed visits to five social action sites, returning to Syracuse with a suitcase of tapes and transcripts that will eventually become a book. His travels took him back to New York City, to Chicago, Detroit, the Fox Indian community near Tama, Iowa, and to the Fort Berthold Indian Reservation in North Dakota.

Among the programs surveyed were the East Harlem Project of Preston Wilcox; the work of Dan and Hope Morrow and the American Friends Service Committee on East 111 Street in New York; the back-of-the-yards projects of Saul Alinsky in Chicago; the Hyde Park-Kenwood Community Conference spearheaded by Herbert Thelen of the University of Chicago; and the work of "action anthropologists" such as Sol Tax among American Indians.

Together, the programs present widely varying theoretical orientations, techniques, populations, and outcomes. Some are conflict organizations, some de-emphasize conflict; some are based on a consciousness of place—a block, a public housing project, a building—while others are founded on a perceived common interest outside of geographic limits; some are rooted in a scientific discipline, others in a profession or a religious faith.

The purpose of the investigation is to build up a common core of descriptive material through systematic observation. Under study in each social action program are the following items:

1. The rationale of the social action process, its relationship to specific disciplines, the types and breadth of programs, and the techniques of motivation and direction.
2. The number, training, experience, and types of persons participating in the program at various levels and in various ways.
3. The differential outcomes of social action for the participants.
4. The consequences of social action for non-participants; those eligible to become members but who remain outside the program.
5. The characteristics of the operating area, including geography, population, formal and informal social structure, traditions, quality of public services, and rates of delinquency, dependency, crime, and unemployment.
6. The social forces and structure external to the operating area and how they are affected by and impinge upon the action process.
7. The historical development of each social action effort.

Dr. Haggstrom's study of self-help processes is expected to enter a more active phase during the coming year, when theories of social action will be tested in a research situation. Preliminary work with a Syracuse community council began during 1963. More extensive efforts at self-help organization are forecast for 1964 and beyond. Spurring this Center activity is the mounting complex of problems faced by the Syracuse area and its neighborhoods of poverty. The dislocations of urban renewal, the growing agitation for civil rights, the needs of an under-serviced central city slum area, and the struggles of over-burdened public and private agencies are all converging on a testing ground of social action processes.

POVERTY AND POLITICAL ACTION[1]

Agreeing with Dr. Haggstrom's self-help philosophy but differing on points of emphasis is his Center colleague, Dr. S. M. Miller. According to Dr. Miller, poverty is an American problem that has not yet reached its full stature as a *political* problem. Whether it fully becomes the issue that it should depends to a large extent on what the poor do. They will need allies from other groups if they are to be effective, but the poor themselves are the likely "movers and shakers."

Although Dr. Miller insists that poverty is sad wherever it takes place and unforgivable in our kind of society, he chooses to concentrate on the urban poor. This group is today composed of many different strands: refugees from the land, older settlers of the city slums, Southern mountaineer whites, Southern Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Mexican-Americans. Despite this diversity, the poor in the largest urban centers are rapidly evolving into a "colored" poor of Negroes and the Spanish-speaking. It is these groups who are most likely to become a political force. The combination of race and class issues today gives the poor a much greater political potential than is usually true of low income, depressed populations.

Negroes particularly are beginning to develop a political "clout" that will give them the ability to demand and get services and help at both the federal and state levels. We are witnessing, maintains Dr. Miller, the groping utilization of citizenship rights by a new group. In theory these rights have been available to all; in practice, they have been extended—at varying rates of speed—only to whites. As the Irish, later the Jews, and still more recently the Italians used their citizenship rights, they were able to obtain a more equitable distribution of political and economic rewards. This same process is beginning with Negroes and, at a slower rate, with many other members of the new working class. It promises to be the decisive political condition of the Sixties in this country.

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[1] For a fuller statement of Dr. Miller's position, see "Poverty, Race, and Politics" in *The New Sociology: Essays in Honor of C. Wright Mills*, ed. Irving L. Horowitz (New York: Oxford University Press), (forthcoming).

The high rate of unemployment among the new working class, their low wages, their inadequate housing as they suffer the bulk of the ravages (and reap only some of the benefits) of urban redevelopment, the poor schooling offered their children, the neglect of public services in their neighborhoods, the frequent callousness of the police and welfare departments, the bilking by merchants—in short, their second-class economic and political citizenship—provide the issues that may mold the new working class into a potent political force.

Dr. Miller suggests that the economic binding of the various groups of the poor is their common need for decent employment and decent social services. The achievement of these goals requires political action, for economic issues are political issues today. Dr. Miller sees two economic choices before the country: a sustained, widespread economic growth, or a shift in the distribution of income. A sustained economic growth will mean what it has meant before—that the groups which were disadvantaged will be able to get more of the goods of society; rising levels of production and employment will draw into the labor force large numbers of people presently unemployed and those classified as "unemployables." If, however, the economy fails to grow at an adequate level, and if its growth does not lead to a widespread distribution of benefits, then it will become increasingly necessary to have a redistribution of income.

DR. S. M. MILLER

In the United States, the redistribution of income takes place to a large extent in transfer payments of welfare and social assistance. In an economy that is expanding with a great growth in the level of national income, it becomes relatively easy to transfer some of the income to the poor by collecting taxes and paying out "welfare." But, with limited economic activity, transfer payments become a heavier burden. Our society, maintains Dr. Miller, is undergoing economic change but limited economic growth. As a consequence, many communities are not improving at all; still others face a spiraling network of problems. Under such conditions, one can predict ever-increasing outcries against the sustenance of the poor. Social services, therefore, are increasingly political issues, frequently arousing the new working class to action.

According to Dr. Miller, most social agencies have failed to strike at the things that will produce pervasive change among the poor in metropolitan America today. What we must look for increasingly is not just the extension of social services, but the kind of situations in which the poor will try to do something about their own plight. Saul Alinsky, Preston Wilcox, Warren Haggstrom and others are showing that such action is possible among the poor.

One difficulty of organization for social action is that the initial issues have to be local and immediate, directly affecting the new working class. But many of the problems facing the new working class cannot be resolved at local levels; they need national action for effective policies and programs. Linking local actions to broader national concerns and building an orientation to the national political scene is one of the most difficult and important tasks f[illegible]ng social actionists.

Dr. Miller does not suggest that a powerful movement [illegible] w exists in the Negro [illegible] d other new working class communities. Rather, there is [illegible] *tential* for political m[illegible]i-zation. Whether this potential is realized, he believes, w[illegible] depend to a large ext[illegible] on what labor unions do. The white union movement to[illegible] declining in term[illegible] its coverage of the labor force. At the same time, a new [illegible]" labor force is [illegible] ng which is highly exploited economically and which is [illegible] of the unions and [illegible] in economic structure of the United States. Problems [illegible] rty, urban redevel[illegible] nt, discrimination, political represen[illegible] on—all issues t[illegible] central to the prob[illegible] of the new working class—will co[illegible] to the fore if un[illegible] ove toward this g[illegible]

If Negroes do not move into unions, joining efforts [illegible] white groups [illegible] for common political and economic interests, then Dr. M[illegible] elieves that the [illegible] ssues will have paramount significance [illegible] Negro life. The [illegible] nce of race woul[illegible] n in all likelihood mean the growth [illegible] various kinds o[illegible] ive forces among [illegible] es, including deeper penetration of [illegible] Negro-Muslim a[illegible] her movements. As p[illegible] al strains develop both inside and [illegible] ide the Negro co[illegible] ity, the chance of exp[illegible] ive situations will undoubtedly beco[illegible] greater. If police [illegible] rtments put special pressure on Negro communities in ways considered unfair by Negroes or if the police do not limit white attacks on Negroes, violence will grow in many metropolitan slum warrens.

In summary, Dr. Miller's position is that the best we can expect is that Negroes will move together with other new and old working class groups and with some middle-class groups, regardless of color, to fight for common economic and political interests. Whether these developments take place depends upon the behavior of social agencies, labor unions, political parties, and the national government in making direct efforts to reach out, to provide services to, and to demonstrate interest in the plight of the new working class. Poverty, like most other economic questions, is now a political issue. It is an issue of what level of economic product this country will attain and how it is distributed. The raising of the problems of poverty to the political level and the encouragement of the new working class to do something about the situations they face are the basis of a revived liberalism in the Sixties. To Dr. Miller, the linking of the new working class to those who are comparatively affluent but concerned with the quality of life offers our best hope in today's society.

YOUTH PROBLEMS: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

DR. ROBERT S. PICKETT | RIGHT | WITH UNIVERSITY ARCHIVIST JAMES K. OWENS

THE NEW YO[illegible] OF [illegible]: A CAS[illegible]TUDY OF NINETEENTH CENTURY HUMANI[illegible] REFOR[illegible] 1825-18[illegible]

In April, 1961, a moving van carrying 91 cartons of ledgers, daily journals, [illegible]s, and annual reports pulled up to the loading dock of the Syracuse University Ar[illegible]. Waiting to greet it was Robert S. Pickett, a graduate assistant in the Youth De[illegible]ment Center and an historical detective of no small skill. As he signed the lo[illegible] receipt, Mr. Pickett—now Dr. Pickett of the Clarkson College Depart[illegible]t of Li[illegible] Studies—could write "finis" to a search that had begun eight months b[illegible]e.

The van's carefully-packed boxes contained the records of the New York House [illegible] Refuge, the first reformatory for the housing of juvenile delinquents in the United States. Practically unknown to scholars, the collection was "rediscovered" by Mr. Pickett while writing a seminar paper. A brief mention in a manuscript guide launched him on a search that ended at the New York State Vocational Institution at West Coxsackie. Here, stored in a vault since 1935, were over 500 volumes of virtually priceless information on American humanitarian reform, child welfare, and delinquency. Here were the Daily Journals of the Superintendents, giving a day-to-day account of life in the House of Refuge from 1825 to 1935. Here were the Case Histories, recording the activities of more than 30,000 juveniles. Here were the indenture and parole records of inmates, the day books and financial reports, the administrative records, and the annual reports of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents for over one hundred years.

Only two persons had examined this unique collection. One was Donald D. Scarborough, the history-minded superintendent of the New York State Vocational Institution at West Coxsackie—legal successor to the House of Refuge—who had saved the collection from possible destruction. The other was Professor Negley K. Teeters of Temple University, documentor of the Philadelphia House of Refuge. Following Mr. Pickett's visit to West Coxsackie, a loan agreement was negotiated between the Syracuse University Library and Youth Development Center and the Department of Correction of the State of New York. After transferral to Syracuse and cataloging by the University Archivist, the collection was opened to scholars in the fall of 1961.

The first scholar to make use of this treasure was, appropriately enough, Mr. Pickett. His study, supported by the Ford Foundation, examines the New York City House of Refuge as one expression of the reform movement stirring the country in the first half of the nineteenth century.

Ever since 1825, when the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents founded the New York House of Refuge, we have used the reformatory as a means of handling our most rebellious youths and have expended a great deal of time and effort on the study of juvenile delinquency. Few, however, have studied it as a phenomenon in our history. Dr. Pickett's research is designed to show how reformers initially perceived delinquency and how they hoped to eliminate it.

In order to understand the origins of the House of Refuge movement, the activities of the founders are closely examined. Biographies, correspondence, diaries, newspapers, and travel accounts reveal these men as a religiously-inspired group, mostly Quakers, bent on saving souls and achieving the perfection of American society.

The annual reports of the institution provide the best source for public attitudes towards the causes and treatment of delinquency. According to these reports, unfit parents, alcohol, and ignorance represented the chief sources of juvenile crime; the House of Refuge, by contrast, stood as parent, teacher, employer, and friend.

To gain an idea of the accuracy of these claims, Dr. Pickett checked them against the case histories of Refuge inmates. An analysis of the careers of 500 children, selected at random from five separate five-year periods, partly substantiated the managers' public claims as to the causes of juvenile delinquency. Dr. Pickett discovered, however, that one man, the superintendent of the reformatory, provided most of the information for both the public reports and the more intimate reformatory records, and thus played the greatest role in structuring the public image of delinquency. In spite of his preconceived notions, the superintendent gathered a tremendous amount of useful information. His records show that parental indifference and "depravity" did indeed create many problems, while ethnic origin, lack of education, and easy access to alcohol appear to be important factors in the backgrounds of many delinquents.

In its public career, revealed through the study of case histories, correspondence, and other materials, the House of Refuge ostensibly played the role which it claimed for itself. Although Refuge officials handled only a fraction of New York City's youthful criminals, they did give this fraction a limited amount of education and training. But the Refuge never lived up to all the claims of its supporters. Designed as a panacea to save society, it became, as time went on, more concerned with saving its own life. While the superintendent strove to keep order and maintain a good public image, the managers struggled to obtain financial support and prevent outside interference. Though the House of Refuge set the pattern for the whole reformatory movement, the progressive impulse which had given it birth gradually died.

In spite of the importance of the reformatory, the "dragon of delinquency" lives on. From his research, Dr. Pickett concludes that the personal approach originally brought to the study and treatment of delinquency by the House of Refuge founders should never have been replaced by detached institutionalism. The reformatory, when successful, has only corrected anti-social patterns of behavior; it has never prevented them.

A COMMUNITY LOOKS AT DELINQUENCY

The editor of the Syracuse *Post-Standard,* Mr. J. Leonard Gorman, is of the opinion that Syracusans—and possibly people in many other communities—are more inclined to study delinquency than to do something about it. His opinion, and his interest, have led to still another study: an historical survey to record specific recommendations for "doing something about delinquency in Syracuse" and to follow these recommendations through time.

As planned by Elizabeth J. Thompson, the Center's associate in community relations, the research will span the years 1930 through 1962. A pilot study, covering the period 1953 through 1962, was completed during the past year and serves as a guide to the thoughts and actions of the community in defining an area of growing concern.

Pilot study findings, reported in a Center working paper, are based on a content analysis of 160 news stories from the *Post-Standard* files that contain material relevant to the two study questions: "What causes juvenile delinquency?" and "What should be done about juvenile delinquency in Syracuse?"

In the nine-year period under review, the researcher found 367 recommendations for coping with troublesome youth and 107 ideas as to delinquency causation, with close to 70 per cent of the items appearing in the last five study years. Syracuse, it seems, did not have a "youth problem" until about 1958. The 1953-57 reports of the Council of Social Agencies' Crime Prevention Committee and of the Syracuse Police Youth Bureau trace a consistent downward trend in juvenile arrests, a trend that had begun in 1948. The Youth Bureau's 1957 annual report, however, discloses a "disturbing increase" in crimes committed by the 16-21 year age group and in some types of crime committed by those under 16. Juvenile delinquency is more and more a subject for public attention, and by 1960 is becoming a year-round topic of debate and concern in the local press.

What causes juvenile delinquency? Most Syracusans are reluctant to speak on the subject. Seventy-three per cent of the items inspected contain no reference to delinquency causation, concentrating instead on recommendations to meet the problem. Those who do ponder causation are inclined to blame the family situation: 28 per cent of the news story spokesmen attribute delinquency to factors such as broken homes, working mothers, and abdication of the parental role. Nineteen per cent view the problem as caused by the complexities and pressures of modern society, and to a breakdown in social values. Thirteen per cent see delinquency rooted in psychological causes; 11 per cent look upon the problem as one created by a combination of social and psychological ills. The remaining 29 per cent attribute delinquency to a variety of factors ranging from the influence of comic books and television to lack of work opportunities to racial discrimination.

What should be done about delinquency? Here Syracusans (and their invited consultants) do speak out—367 times—and with a multitude of suggestions that group into 74 content analysis categories. These categories, in turn, can be roughly divided into four major groupings: recommendations focusing on punishment, on prevention, on rehabilitation, and on a combination of preventive and rehabilitative measures.

Forty-five per cent of the recommendations made about delinquency and youth problems stress prevention. Of the 32 general categories in this area, the most frequently mentioned are (1) research to identify the factors that breed delinquency and to allow for early intervention, (2) increasing the employment opportunities for youth, and

(3) building family solidarity. The second highest-ranking category (28 per cent) is the combination "prevention-rehabilitation" grouping. The most frequent recommendations here are extremely general suggestions concerning community attitudes and orientations toward the delinquency problem. Ranking third (22 per cent) is the category of rehabilitation, with the majority of suggestions concerned with the number, type, and quality of correctional institutions and with the judicial processes affecting delinquents and youthful offenders. Five per cent of the recommendations stress punishment for misdeeds, to chastise the offender and to set an example for potential wrongdoers. Most frequently called for are "get tough" policies on the part of police and the publicizing of names of youngsters in trouble with the law.

Among the more detailed plans advanced for meeting Syracuse's delinquency problems are (1) creation of a youth bureau in the Sheriff's Department, (2) using the State Fairgrounds as a giant "Teen Town" for social and athletic events, (3) formation of "Citizen's Youth Committees" in each of the city's 19 wards to sponsor youth activities and serve as intercessors for children in trouble, and (4) employing street-corner workers to reach organized gangs in the community. Some of these proposals came to fruition; some were modified and incorporated into other projects; some came to nothing. Future research plans call for an examination of the factors leading to community approval or rejection, plus an extension of the study period to the 1930's and 1940's.

Delinquency Tackled

Urge Youth Inventory

A thorough "assessment of all agencies, services and programs engaged in the treatment and prevention of juvenile delinquency in this community" was suggested last night as the first task of the newly established Youth Development Center.

The "inventory" was suggested by Dr. Kenneth W. Kindelsperger, executive officer of the center, at the first meeting of the project's Advisory Development Council.

The Center was established three weeks ago, under a $740,000 grant from the Ford Foundation. The largest of its kind in the nation, the joint Syracuse University-community project will launch a three-pronged attack of training, demonstration and research against the problems presented by juvenile delinquency.

The Advisory Development Council, made up of heads of youth-serving agencies and specialists in the field of youth work, is the policy implementing arm of the institution.

Kindelsperger suggested the assessment attempt to answer three questions concerning the work of present youth institutions. What is the nature of the problem they deal with? What are they doing about it And what they would like to do had they additional resources?

"Once we have this kind of information," Kindelsperger said, "the center can begin its program to supplement and strengthen existing agencies."

Four areas in which the center might concentrate its future work were suggested by the executive officer. They were that the center:

1. Become a depository of existing information on juvenile delinquency and a source of new publications of talks, research findings and case-study and demonstration reports.

2. Develop an experimental demonstration program through which new ideas and programs could be tested.

3. Establish an extensive training program both formal and in-
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4. Set up
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THE POST-STANDARD

4 Tuesday, March 29, 1960

School for Police

A 10-week course on juvenile delinquency is beginning at University College.

Approximately 40 Syracuse and Onondaga County law enforcement officers will take the course being financed by the Youth Development Center.

It is an ideal way to attack the delinquency problem. Police can benefit from the research and theoretical approach, and the teachers can learn from the man on the beat who comes to grips with it on the streets and in court.

The course was mapped after a year of study and discussions with officers at every level. So it is no hit or miss program. The policeman is the key figure in prevention and control of delinquency,
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THE POST-STANDARD

SYRACUSE, N. Y., SUNDAY, JULY 24, 1960

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MARKETS

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III

PAGE NINETEEN

School Vandalism Knows No Bounds

By LEROY NATANSON

Heavy vandalism in Syracuse public schools is closely related to a lack of identification with the school on the part of pupils, parents and teachers.

This was one of the significant findings of a two-year survey made by Dr. Nathan Goldman, Syracuse University sociologist.

The study was completed under contract with the U.S. Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Dr. Goldman said the study did away with a myth—that the damage occurs only in low-income areas.

"There is probably a significant correlation between the transient and unstable neighborhood that is going down and the high damage rating of a school," he said. However, in low-income areas which had become stable, school damage was low.

Six Signposts

Dr. Goldman listed six signposts that he said point to high property damage in the junior and senior high schools in Syracuse.

They are:

1. Lack of identification with the school on the part of the pupils, parents and staff.

2. Poor relationship among pupils, staff and parents.

3. Inadequate school administration and leadership.

4. Rapid or extensive change in the school program, population and staff.

5. Pupil and school staff dissatisfaction with school administration.

6. Community instability coupled with neighborhood deterioration.

He said, "Probably no one school either possess all these unfavorable characteristics or is free from them all, but in those school systems where they overshadow wholesome conditions we may well find fertile soil for the growth of vandalism."

Cause or Effect

He pointed out, too, "We really don't know whether the adverse characteristics found in the school situations where damage is high are the cause or effect of vandalism."

Pupils in schools where heavy vandalism was reported had an attitude of "couldn't care less." They described their schools as "poorest" or "poorer than most."

These pupils admitted they did nothing to improve the school.

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THE POST-STANDARD, Syracuse, N. Y., Thursday, June 18, 1959

Solution of Delinquency Problem Held Still Sought

Working in the area of child behavior and delinquency is particularly challenging because "everybody has an answer to delinquency but no one as yet has come up with the right answers."

David Hunter, Ford Foundation public affairs specialist, made this comment at a luncheon yesterday for staff and citizen members of the Syracuse University Youth Development Center and the Youth Study Center of the University of Southern California.

Yesterday's luncheon, held in Graham Hall on Mt. Olympus, marked the first anniversary of the Youth Development and Youth Studies Centers. The two groups were established under Ford Foundation grants to conduct research, action, and educational programs in child be-

expect overnight solutions and packaged answers to either the causes or cure of delinquency.

Finding Answers

Finding some of the answers, he said, calls for dedication, patience, hard work, imagination, diplomacy, and wisdom greater than Solomon's.

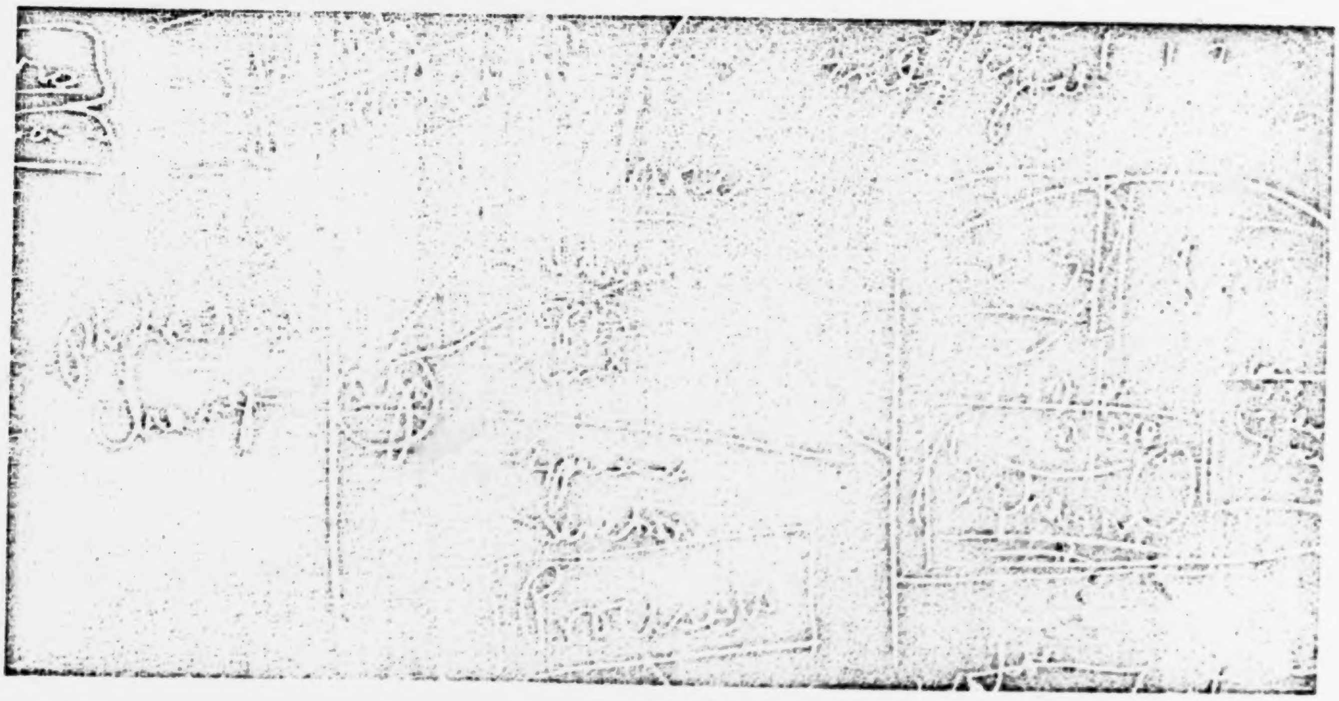
fer new hope and encouragement to all concerned with problems of youth.

"Both centers," he said, "are dedicated to pooling all of the ability two great universities can bring to this problem, plus the interest and talents of our citizens who can do something about it."

YOUTH PROBLEMS: EDUCATING OURSELVES AND OTHERS

CONFERENCE ON SELF-REPORT TECHNIQUES

Juvenile delinquency, says Professor Robert H. Hardt, is like an iceberg. Officially reported delinquencies—those cases that come to the attention of police and court agencies—make up the highly visible ice top. But just as we find it difficult to predict how much of the iceberg is hidden below the water line, so we have no reliable way of knowing how much delinquent behavior goes unnoticed or unreported. Because police practices vary from community to community, our records of delinquent activity vary. The tolerance levels of a community also vary, again affecting police practices and records. Most students of juvenile delinquency believe that official reports give only a crude indication of the behavior of all youth in a community.



Attention began focusing on this problem of reported versus unreported delinquency ten years ago. Two sociologists, F. Ivan Nye and James F. Short, Jr., noticed that most of the delinquent children placed in institutions came from lower-class homes. How well did this represent the actual behavior taking place? Were only lower-class children getting into trouble? Nye and Short decided to select a sample community and then ask the children themselves about their delinquent activities.

The research technique that Nye and Short developed has become known as the self-report. Respondents are asked to relate their actions in certain situations; for example, a self-report instrument developed by Professor Hardt for use in Syracuse included the following section:

HERE ARE A FEW MORE THINGS THAT YOUNG PEOPLE SOMETIMES DO. WHEN WAS THE LAST TIME THAT YOU DID EACH OF THEM? CHECK ONLY THE *LAST* TIME THIS HAPPENED.

I broke open a candy or cigarette machine or pay phone.

—in the last 7 days
—in the last 12 months
—over a year ago
—never

I went into someone's building when no one was there and looked or played around.

—in the last 7 days
—in the last 12 months
—over a year ago
—never

I made so much noise on the street that somebody complained.

—in the last 7 days
—in the last 12 months
—over a year ago
—never

Though the self-report is still not a common research technique it has been extremely useful in studying the relationships between official and unofficial delinquency. The Youth Development Center has been interested in this particular subject since the launching of the first Delinquency Profile study. More recently, the Center's research for the Mayor's Commission for Youth gave staff members an opportunity to use self-reports as part of a larger study.

Prior to the development of the instrument, the Center secured the sponsorship of the National Institute of Mental Health for a conference on "Problems of Delinquency Measurement Using Self-Report Techniques." The meetings brought together some of the chief users of the technique for a round of discussions held at Syracuse University's Minnowbrook Conference Center from September 17 through 19, 1962. Participating in the sessions were the following researchers:

Nancy Jo Barton	Wilson College
Benjamin Breshears	Vermont Youth Study
Nils Christie	University of Oslo; visiting fellow, Harvard University
John P. Clark	University of Illinois
Robert Dentler	Columbia University
Raymond Gould	National Institute of Mental Health
Jerome Himelhoch	Vermont Youth Study
Paul Lerman	Mobilization for Youth, New York City
F. Ivan Nye	Florida State University
Edward Olds	President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime
Donnell Pappenfort	Mobilization for Youth, New York City
Donald Pilcher	U.S. Children's Bureau

Ira L. Reiss	State University of Iowa
Raymond Tennyson	State College of Washington
Irwin Deutscher	
Robert H. Hardt	
George E. Bodine	Syracuse University Youth Development Center
Linda Morrow	

Conference discussions focused on five issues: (1) validity and reliability of self-reports, (2) construction and use of scales, (3) the relationship between social class and delinquent behavior, (4) problems in using the self-report, and (5) self-report research and community relations. Conference proceedings are detailed in the Center publication *Development of Self-Report Instruments in Delinquency Research* by Professor Hardt and George E. Bodine.

POLICE SEMINAR ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

One out of every 10 children in Onondaga County has a police contact by age 16. The majority of these contacts are with the patrolman-on-the-beat, the officer with the least opportunity to become knowledgeable in the area of juvenile behavior and misbehavior. Aware of this training need, the Syracuse Chief of Police and the Onondaga County Sheriff early in 1959 approached the Youth Development Center for aid in offering a special study course on delinquency for the police generalist.

After nearly a year's consultation with local police units to determine interest, feasibility, and course content, the Center opened its first Police Seminar on Juvenile Delinquency in March, 1960. The Seminar was repeated in 1961 and 1962. By the spring of 1963 most of the interested police officers had attended one of the three study sessions and the course was discontinued. Whether it is offered again in 1964, or another type of program is presented, will depend on the needs expressed by area police officials.

During its three-year existence the Seminar granted course certificates to 174 state, county, city, town, and village police officers stationed within a 100-mile radius of Syracuse. All of these men voluntarily completed, on their off-duty time, a seven to ten-week college level course on delinquency causation, control, and treatment. The Seminar was jointly sponsored by the Youth Development Center, the Onondaga County Youth Board, and University College, Syracuse University's downtown adult education division, and was financed by the Center.

Dr. Maurice F. Connery, a senior research associate at the Center and a former specialist in police training at the University of Minnesota, planned and directed the Seminars. Using the Delinquency Profile reports as a study tool, participants considered the extent of the juvenile delinquency problem on the local and national scene and ways in which the police officer might best discharge his responsibilities. Sessions covered the general areas of (1) adolescent behavior and development, (2) factors in delinquency causation, (3) legal aspects of delinquency, (4) police contacts with juveniles, (5) the roles of detention, probation, and the juvenile court, (6) the part played by non-legal community institutions—social agencies, schools, churches—in delinquency prevention and control, and (7) police practice as a profession. The two-hour seminar sessions met once a week at University College. To accommodate officers

DR. MAURICE F. CONNERY

working split or rotating shifts, each session was offered twice, once in the afternoon and again in the evening.

Seminar faculty members included Dr. Connery, Professor Robert H. Hardt, Dr. Lee J. Cary and Dr. Kenneth W. Kindelsperger of the Youth Development Center, Professor John R. Hartnett of the Syracuse University School of Social Work, and Professor Robert W. Miller of the University's College of Law.

WORKSHOP ON THE POLICE, THE COURT, AND THE JUVENILE

When a juvenile involves himself in an illegal act and is apprehended, he becomes a client of the police and the courts. Usually official contact is first made by the police officer, who may follow three courses of action: (1) close the case with on-the-spot suggestions and advice to the child and/or his parents, (2) invoke the jurisdiction of the Family Court, or (3) make a referral of the case to a social agency or other interested party.

The police and the courts are separate agencies that necessarily work in conjunction. However, each agency has its own procedures, processes, and philosophies. In order to best serve the interests of society and the individual, these agencies must employ the best professional judgments and the closest working relationships. In general, the court follows a philosophy of rehabilitation, while the police are mainly concerned with the maintenance of law and order. Both objectives are desirable and compatible, though they may and do come into conflict in individual cases.

With these problems in mind, the Youth Development Center invited police youth officers and juvenile probation officers to attend a workshop to discuss *police referrals* to Family Court, intake policies and procedures of the Family Court Probation Department, and follow-up communication between probation and police agencies. These discussions were held at the Syracuse University School of Social Work on four Thursday afternoons in March, 1962. Conducting the workshop was Dr. Lee J. Cary, director of community services for the Youth Development Center. Professor John R. Hartnett of the School of Social Work and Mr. Emil Hale, executive secretary of the Onondaga County Youth Board, served as workshop consultants.

POLICE SEMINAR ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The staff of the workshop recognized that formal policies and procedures are established by and are the prerogative of the individual agency and department concerned. They hoped, however, that the workshop would provide an informal setting in which questions could be raised, issues resolved, and a better understanding and appreciation of each others' duties achieved. Portions of several sessions centered on specific case situations and details of procedure. Because of the confidential nature of the discussions, a report of proceedings was made available only to the 22 participants.

As the talks progressed, it became clear that six issues were of paramount concern to the police and probation officers working with juveniles. These could be summarized as the operating philosophy of the Family Court, the concept of rehabilitation, the expectations of police in a referral situation, the community's differential expectations of police and youth officers, the sources of authority for intervention, and the achievement of mutual respect and understanding through better processes of communication.

The workshop accomplished two things. First, by bringing interested parties together in an atmosphere conducive to free and frank talk, it helped in establishing greater rapport among the representatives of a variety of official agencies. Second, it produced a number of specific suggestions, later put into practice, for clearing communication lines between police and probation.

WORKSHOP FOR TEACHERS OF THE CULTURALLY DEPRIVED

The Syracuse University School of Education traditionally offers during its summer school program several special workshops designed to aid teachers working in particularly sensitive, difficult, or rapidly-changing areas. The Youth Development Center was pleased to have an opportunity to participate in one such venture, a Workshop for Teachers of the Culturally Deprived, during the summer of 1963.

Planned by Dr. Clarence W. Hunnicutt of the School of Education, the workshop explored teaching philosophies, techniques, and special programs for aiding children from slum environments. The three-week program was directed by Dr. Sam Shepard, Jr., assistant superintendent of the St. Louis public schools and well known for his efforts to revitalize that city's grey area schools. Four Center staff members worked with Dr. Shepard in bringing to workshop participants the findings of Center research relevant to an educational setting. Dr. Warren C. Haggstrom discussed the social action movement and its implications for schools; Dr. S. M. Miller outlined his findings from studies of school dropouts; Dr. David E. Hunt discussed conceptual systems theory and its potential for school programming; and Dr. Helen Icken Safa told of her research into parent-child relationships in the female-based household. In addition to staff participation, the Center awarded 13 tuition scholarships to workshop students.

SUMMER LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM

Late in the spring of 1963 the Task Force on Education of the Mayor's Commission for Youth suggested that a special program in communication skills be instituted during the summer months. Work of the Task Force had again highlighted the reading and language arts needs of culturally deprived children in the Madison School area. Coupled with this was the approaching vacation season, when limited recreational facilities in the neighborhood would be strained, when many youngsters would be left to their own resources for long periods of time, and when school facilities in the area would be largely unused. In essence, the Task Force recommended that all of these factors be brought together to form a new educational experience for grade-school children.

Though the idea was advanced late in the school year, it found enthusiastic support from a complex of local and state agencies. The Madison Area Project and the Syracuse Board of Education made available Croton Elementary School. The Youth Development Center offered up to $1,000 toward teachers' salaries; once this money was committed, additional funds were granted, on a matching basis, by the New York State Division for Youth through the Onondaga County Youth Board. The Syracuse University School of Education, which each summer holds a six-weeks Intensive Teacher Training project, volunteered to administer the language arts program. Professor Henry S. Balmer, director of the University's Summer Demonstration School, headed the program staff. The Syracuse Public Library system offered special services and materials. Through a series of fortunate circumstances, University College was able to incorporate the language arts program into its field projects for Peace Corps trainees.

Approximately 100 area children enrolled in the Summer Language Arts Program at Croton Elementary School. They were guided through an experimental curriculum by local master teachers, chosen for unusual competence in their academic specialty and in teaching skills. Peace Corps trainees served as teachers' aides, working with the children in small groups and on a one-to-one basis. Successful both as an educational experience and as an experiment in cooperative community planning, the language arts program is being incorporated into program recommendations made to the Mayor's Commission on Youth.

GRADUATE ASSISTANT PROGRAM

Since it began, the Youth Development Center has viewed as one of its major purposes the support, encouragement, and training of graduate students who plan careers in research, teaching, or action programs concerned with the problems of urban life. Today we are seeing an increasing demand for professional manpower capable of assuming more than the traditional research housekeeping or consulting roles with community agencies. Coupled with this is the increasing recognition of the need for intimate involvement of social scientists in action programs. The Center's graduate training program is designed to help meet these dual conditions.

Thirty-eight graduate students—most of them candidates for doctoral degrees—have received Center appointments since the start of the program in 1953. Seven of these scholars remained at the Center as Research Assistants; three are currently on the staff as Research Associates. All of those who have completed their academic training are pursuing careers based on their work at the Center; some in private social agencies, some in probation and parole work, some in college and university teaching, some in research and social action programming. The accompanying chart shows the current status of all graduate assistants who have held Center appointments.

GRADUATE ASSISTANTS GENO ANDREATTA, JOAN WEBER AND JAMES McINTOSH

Candidates for Center assistantships are drawn primarily from the fields of anthropology, economics, education, family living and child development, political science, psychology, public administration, social science, social work, and sociology. Applicants must have completed at least one year of graduate study and indicate an intent to obtain a doctorate degree. All appointments are made in consultation with and on the recommendation of the student's academic department.

There is no routine, step-by-step program through which each Center assistant progresses; rather, the specific content of the experience is tailored to the needs of the student and, indirectly, to the needs of the staff, since one of the selection criteria is the mutually profitable relationship between student and staff member. Approximately one-half of the assistant's time—20 hours a week—is devoted to his Center duties and the other one-half to formal course work for his degree. Some graduate assistants are able, with departmental approval, to incorporate their work at the Center into their doctoral dissertations.

All assistants take part in the Center's Graduate Assistant Seminar, which is conducted by a senior staff member twice each month during the academic year. Sessions have focused on such topics as the definition of research problems, procedures in survey research, the initiation of community self-help programs among low-income groups, the methodological problems of self-report instruments, and problems of program design and evaluation.

The graduate assistant may, and frequently does, participate in the formulation of research questions, the design of a study, the preparation of a proposal, negotiations with agency officials, pilot operations, interviewing, questionnaire and instrument construction, the pretesting, coding, and analysis of data, and community interpretation. He may share in the writing and authorship of publications; almost all of the graduate assistants of 1962-63 were authors or co-authors of Center papers and publications. Finally, he is given the opportunity to attend professional meetings in his field.

The graduate assistant is viewed as a junior professional colleague. He is affiliated with the Center not only to learn as much as possible of research techniques and professional practices, but to become familiar with the norms and values of social science research and the tenuous connections between research and action programs. The opportunity to participate in and to observe the relationships between social science research and community projects provides a background rarely available to the graduate student. Training programs have traditionally tended to focus on the grooming of clinical practitioners in specific disciplines. The program at the Youth Development Center departs from this conventional interpretation of "training" by providing a multi-discipline background for research and for the implementation of research. The Center is attempting to develop a special training program in problem areas where there are critical needs for qualified personnel.

GRADUATE ASSISTANTS

YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER 1958-1964

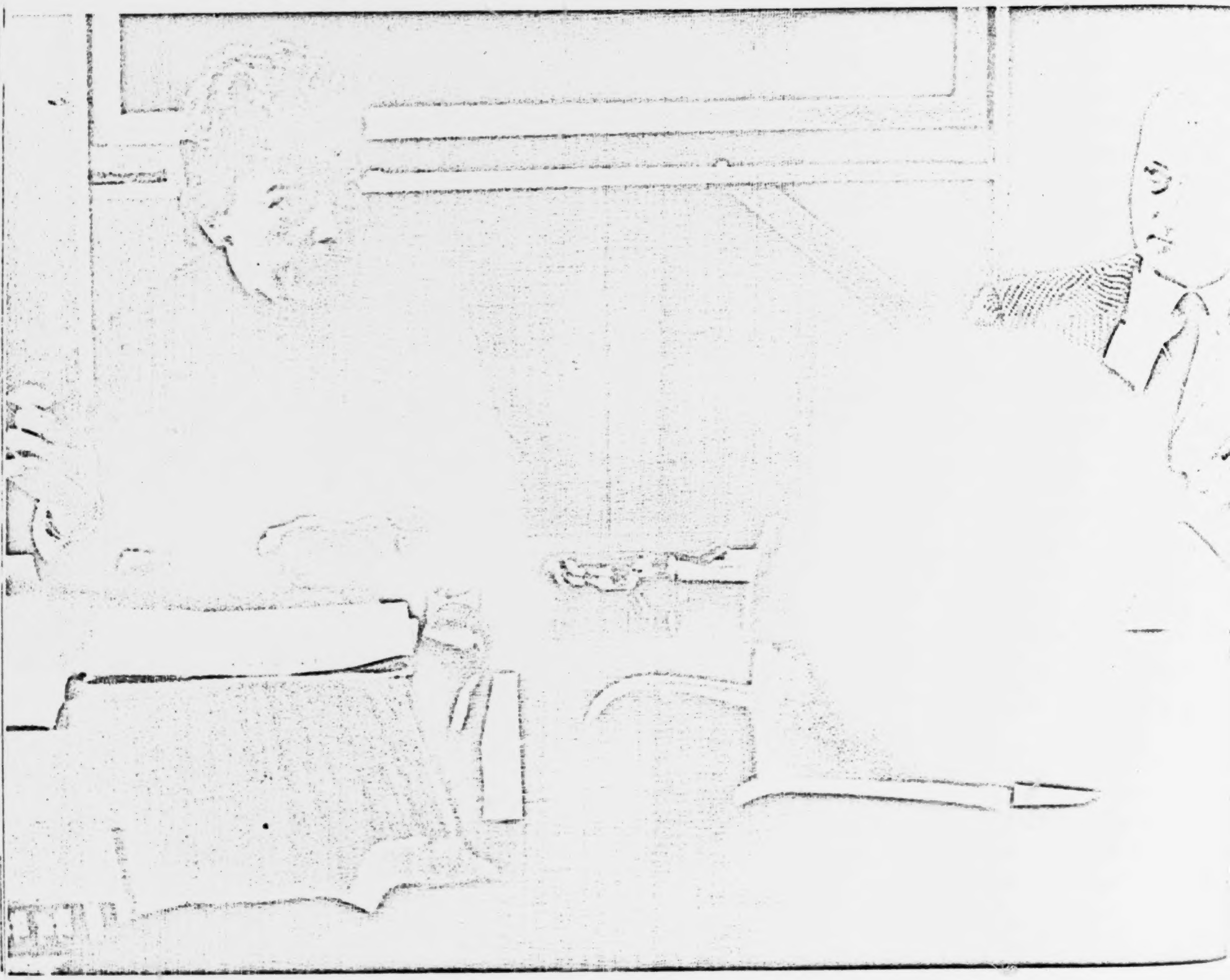
NAME	S.U. DEPT.	PERIOD OF GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIP	OTHER YDC APPOINTMENTS	CURRENT POSITION*
Alam, Sterling E.	Social Science	1962-63		Instructor, Sociology Department, Hastings College (M.A.)
Andreatta, A. Geno	Anthropology	1963-64		Assistant to M. Weiss on the study of Family Life and Social Roles of Slum Families.
Berg, Marjorie R.	Reading Center and School of Education	1959-60		Working with problem children in Marblehead, Mass. public schools.
Bodine, George E.	Sociology	1959-61	Research Assistant 1961-62, 1962-63 Research Associate 1963-64	Senior assistant to R. H. Hardt, co-author of *Delinquency Profile*, an annual report on official delinquency in Syracuse and Onondaga County.
Bryce, Herrington J.	Economics	1961-64		Assistant to S. M. Miller on NSF project: Methodological Aspects of Social Mobility.
Cagle, Laurence T.	Sociology	1962-64		Assistant to I. Deutscher on SSA grant: Fatherless Families.

*Degrees received since appointment to Assistantship appear in parentheses.

NAME	S.U. DEPT.	PERIOD OF GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIP	OTHER YDC APPOINTMENTS	CURRENT POSITION*
Callahan, Leroy G.	Arithmetic Center School of Education	1960-62	Research Assistant 1962-63	Graduate Assistant, Mathematics Education Center, Syracuse University; Consultant in Mathematics, Madison Area Program.
Davis, Daniel	History	1963-64		Assistant to W. Haggstrom on social action programming.
Dopyera, John E.	Psychology	1961-62	Research Associate 1962-64	Associated with D. E. Hunt on NIMH and Ford Foundation supported study on the development of adolescent personality.
Fox, Thomas G.	Economics	1962-64		Assistant to S. M. Miller on NSF project.
Freskos, George	Sociology	1959-61	Research Assistant 1961-62, 1962-63	Research Associate, Pakistan Administrative Staff College, Lahore, West Pakistan (M.A.)
Gargan, John J.	Political Science	1963-64		Assistant to L. J. Cary on a community relationships study; also doing a literature survey in the field of housing and health.
Geisinger, David	Psychology	1960-61		N.Y.S. Mental Health Research Unit Trainee in psychology.
Haas, John W.	Social Science Program	1963-64		Assistant to S. M. Miller on New York State Division for Youth Project.
Hale, Emil	Social Science	1958-60		Regional Representative, Syracuse Office, New York State Division for Youth.
Halliwell, William	Anthropology	1963-64		Assistant to S. M. Miller on New York State Division for Youth Project.
Halverson, Charles	Psychology	1963-64		Assistant to D. Hunt on "Indicators of Developmental Change in Lower Class Children."
Harrison, Constance	Social Work	1958-60		Social Worker, Juvenile and Family Court, Toronto.
Harrison, Ira E.	Anthropology	1961-63		Assistant to S. M. Miller on New York State Division for Youth "Youth and Work" project. Author of an annotated bibliography on store-front churches.
Heath, Charles C.	Social Work	1961-62	Staff member, 1960-61	Parole Agent, Adult Parole Division, California Dept. of Correction, (M.S.W.)
Hebeler, Jean R.	Special Education	1959-60		Teaching and Research, Special Ed., University of Maryland (D.Ed.).
Huizinga, Raleigh	Psychology	1962-63		Graduate Assistant, Psychology Department, Syracuse University.
Ise, Momoyo	Sociology	1960-61		Graduate Student, School of Social Relations, Harvard University (M.A.)

NAME	S.U. DEPT.	PERIOD OF GRADUATE ASSISTANTSHIP	OTHER YDC APPOINTMENTS	CURRENT POSITION*
Koeningsberg, Lewis	Psychology	1958-59		Assistant Professor, Psychology Dept., Ohio University.
Land, Jay M.	Psychology	1963-64		Assistant to H. Icken-Safa on the Public Housing and Social Mobility Study.
Ley, Ronald	Psychology	1959-60	Research Assistant, 1961-62	Assistant Professor of Psychology, Northern Illinois University (Ph.D.).
Lindquist, John H.	Social Science	1960-61		Assistant Professor, Arizona State College (D.S.S.).
Mirels, Herbert	Psychology	1960-62		United States Public Health Service trainee in depth psychology, Syracuse University.
McIntosh, James R.	Sociology	1963-64		Assistant to L. Kriesberg on the Public Housing and Social Mobility Study.
Peterson, Sandra	Sociology	1962-64		Assistant to R. H. Hardt, on developing base line information on juvenile delinquency.
Pickett, Robert S.	Social Science	1958-62	Ford Foundation Research Grant, 1961-62	Assistant Professor, Liberal Studies, Clarkson College (D.S.S.).
Reeb, Donald S.	Economics	1959-60		Assistant Professor of Economics, University of North Carolina (Ph.D.).
Saleem, Betty L.	Sociology	1961-64		Assistant to S. M. Miller on school dropout study supported by SSA grant.
Shore, Roy	Psychology	1962-63		National Science Foundation Predoctoral Research Fellow, Psychology, Syracuse University.
Trotty, Thelie D.	Social Science	1961-62		Teaching, Syracuse Public School System.
Wagenfeld, Morton O.	Sociology	1960-61	Research Assistant, 1962-63 Research Associate, 1963-64	Co-author of *Socio-Economic and Ethnic Areas, Syracuse and Onondaga County,* with C. V. Willie; co-author of three working papers on evaulation of Family Consultant Project in Public Housing.
Weber, Joan T.	Sociology	1963-64		Assistant to S. Bellin on the Public Housing and Social Mobility Study.
Werner, Roland	Sociology	1963-64		Assistant to L. Kriesberg on public housing study.
Wilson, John W.	Arithmetic Center, School of Education	1959-61		Assistant Professor, Mathematics Education Center, Syracuse University (Ph.D.).
Zikry, Abdel-Kalik M.	Sociology	1962-63		Director, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Ministry of Labor, United Arab Republic (Ph.D.).

PROGRAM PROJECTIONS



DR. BLANCHE GEER

PROGRAM PROJECTIONS

An effective research organization is constantly germinating ideas. A staff member's current research will suggest intriguing new avenues for study. Feedback from students, as research activities are discussed in the classroom, produces new insights. Perception of the immediacy of certain problems launches a chain of speculation. A chance remark in staff meeting triggers a new line of approach. A new book, a journal article, or a theoretical advance provide new possibilities. Research requests from the local and national communities, a visitor to the Center, a phone call, or the day's mail open possible new areas of interest.

Some ideas never survive the analytical cross-fire of a staff conference. Some are rejected outright, either as being peripheral to Center interests or because the necessary personnel is not available. Some linger in a researcher's desk drawer, awaiting the time to be nursed into a detailed presentation. Some catch fire and go on to become formal proposals and, eventually, operating projects listed on the Center's roster.

The three ideas detailed in the following pages have refused to be buried in memos and files, have endured staff discussions, and have emerged as proposals formally submitted to fund-granting agencies. The first study, on educational experiences of non-college youth, would greatly expand the Center's interest in school and employment opportunities. The second, a Syracuse SCORE project, attempts to test, in an action setting, a new approach for working with delinquent youth and to extend the Center's base of community involvement. The third, on school integration, provides an opportunity to serve in an under-researched area of great local and national urgency. Together, the proposals forecast some of the major concerns of the Youth Development Center's next five years.

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES OF NON-COLLEGE YOUTH

In the United States of the 1960's, some five and a half million youths of post-high school age do not go on to college. Where do these young men and women learn what they need to know to succeed in the adult world, if indeed they learn it at all? What institutions exist in which they can have the experiences that will help them achieve an adult identity and adult skills? What takes the place of college for our non-college-going population?

Many young men and women will enter trade schools, with hopes of emerging into the market place as watchmakers, welders, airline hostesses, beauticians, television repairmen, fashion models, secretaries, photographers, auctioneers, or keypunch operators. Others will qualify for union apprenticeship programs, graduating into the plumbing, tool-and-die making, printing, and other skilled trades. Some youths will be provided with training opportunities in the armed forces. Still others will receive their post-high school education on the job, some in formal training programs, and some on a catch-as-catch can basis. In all of these learning situations, precisely what kinds of education do non-college youth receive, and what role does this education play in their lives?

Beginning steps to supply answers to these questions will be taken during 1964, when a five-year research project is launched jointly by Dr. Blanche Geer of the Youth Development Center and Dr. Howard S. Becker of the Institute for the Study of Human Problems, Stanford University. Titled "The Educational Experiences of Non-College Youth," the study will be supported by a National Institute of Mental Health grant.

Becker and Geer are explorers into the relatively unknown territory of student culture,[1] the collective responses of students to the problems posed by an educational situation. Now the concepts, methods, and knowledge acquired in studies of professional and college education will be applied to a variety of non-college learning experiences.

Research has shown that the social structure of the institution in which education occurs has a great effect on the kind of learning that takes place. In addition, the demands of the concrete situations in which students find themselves affect both the level and direction of effort put forth. In other words, the character of the learning situation affects both the amount of work a student is willing to do and the kind of thing he is willing to work at. The research problem posed in the Becker and Geer study is threefold: to discover (1) what kinds of institutional settings are provided by various training opportunities, (2) what kinds of student responses occur in these situations, and (3) what the consequences of the interaction between students and institutions are for the development of the student's knowledge and career.

The researchers plan an intensive study of learning situations ranging from trade schools to apprenticeship programs to on-the-job training. After developing a working typology of the kinds of training available and the situations in which it is offered, a sample of approximately a dozen training situations will be selected for detailed study. The chief methodological tool will be participant observation, in which the researcher follows the student through his major educational experiences. In the proposed research, this means being present at the classes or learning situations that occur for students as well as participating in the collective student life outside of the learning situation. In addition, data will be gathered from school and placement records and from interviews with students, teachers, and prospective employers. When it appears useful and feasible, a study of a school on the East Coast will be paralleled with a similar study on the West Coast.

Though the major variables to be used in constructing a typology of training situations are still under consideration, the following items seem to be of particular interest:

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[1] Howard S. Becker, Blanche Geer, Everett C. Hughes, and Anselm L. Strauss, *Boys in White: Student Culture in Medical School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961); a report of a study by Becker and Geer on undergraduate student culture in a college setting is now in preparation.

1. *Sponsorship or ownership* of the school or training situation. Is it public, private, part of a labor union program?

2. *Relationship to various community programs,* such as unions, licensing boards, state legislatures.

3. *Consequences for trainees.* Are they able to find jobs in the field after completing training? Is the school able to furnish positions or is the student on his own?

4. *Recruiting of students.* What are the students' reasons for entering? Do they come directly from secondary school or have they been at work in the community before entering the training situation?

5. *Apprenticeships versus more abstractly oriented training situations.* Is the program limited to teaching the student how to perform a given task or does it include some kind of "theoretical" training?

Spending five years collecting and evaluating information on these and other points is a major investment in time and money. What benefits can reasonably be expected from such a study? The first and most basic contribution is that of facts, facts about an area of educational endeavor and youthful experience that is now almost completely unknown. Large proportions of our non-college youth are unemployed; a substantial number are unemployable, having no marketable skills. Information about the kinds of training situations available and their consequences will add to the knowledge needed to work effectively with this group.

Second, the study will contribute to the growing body of theory and research concerned with the processes of adult socialization. Post-high school youth face characteristic problems in growing up and achieving the status and competence of mature adults. They must acquire particular skills and develop certain aspects of self and identity if they are to perform in the ways ordinarily demanded of adults in our society. Not everyone achieves all these things; a variety of outcomes is possible. The young man or woman who goes to college receives substantial aid in this search for an adult role. In varying degrees, college students learn how to live without the support and help of the family, how to deal with the fact that one's actions have lasting consequences, how to get along with people, how to exercise organizational responsibility, how to plan and pursue long-range goals. Where, if at all, do lower-class youth learn these things? The Becker-Geer study proposes to investigate this question by studying the educational situations characteristically open to lower-class youth and looking for the mechanisms and organizations, if such exist, that provide similar experiences for non-college students.

A third contribution of the research will be further development of theories already proposed about the level and direction of student effort and the formation and character of student culture. For instance, students in a medical school or undergraduate college typically have a relatively high degree of commitment to finishing school. Further, they conceive it as important and necessary to their careers that they do well while in school. It may be that students in trade schools or other training situations have a different sense of commitment; student effort may be lower and the direction more practical. Stress here is on the word "may"; knowledge in this area is currently so limited as to make accurate assessment impossible. If the reverse is found to be true, and the level of student effort is in fact higher when commitment is lower, this finding would have important implications for the curriculum and teaching efforts in colleges and professional schools as well as in non-college learning situations.

Fourth, the study may contribute to current discussions about social stratification. Among the questions harassing scholars in this area are these: (1) Do those who do not get the rewards associated with going to college become alienated from the contemporary class and political order? (2) If they do not, what are the mechanisms that make them feel they have a stake in things as they are? Given the present inequalities in income between those who attend college and those who do not, the topic is an important one, and the Becker-Geer research should produce contributing data.

Finally, the study will provide an excellent opportunity for training students in the techniques of field work and institutional analysis. These skills are in great demand, while opportunities to acquire the necessary training remain limited. Advanced graduate students employed by the study directors will be guided in carrying through a complete research effort, from formulating a problem to gathering the data to completing the analysis.

SYRACUSE SCORE PROJECT

The Syracuse metropolitan area is a comparatively wealthy part of New York State, with many well-organized public and private institutions. It is a place where most children grow up to be productive citizens, stable parents, and a credit to the community. Sometimes, however, something happens to a child: he "goes bad." If his offense is considered serious enough, he is removed from the community.

We do this to youngsters—not just in Syracuse but all over the nation—for a number of reasons. In spite of a great deal of talk about juvenile delinquency and youth problems, a majority of cities do not choose to make a special investment of money or effort on the most acute cases. There is little special professional interest and even less actual care extended to the "worst" boys and girls in the community. The reason for this state of affairs is that we have concentrated on physical procedures for dealing with youth problems. In Syracuse, for example, we institutionalize one or two youngsters every week. This procedure is expensive, and it is shamefully wasteful.

Can something be done about the situation? Is there some practical approach that does not require a battalion of trained youth workers, already in short supply, or a prohibitively large amount of tax and foundation dollars? The Syracuse SCORE project is an effort to determine to what extent something can be done about youngsters spending time in jail or custodial institutions.

SCORE is a proposed project of the Syracuse Junior Chamber of Commerce and the Youth Development Center. An experimental program that has been in the planning stages since June, 1963, the one-year field project will begin early in 1964. Melvin Weiss, anthropologist on the Center's senior staff, has planned the SCORE project with two goals in mind. First, SCORE will try to reduce specific kinds of delinquent behavior among boys already identified as "community troublemakers," boys who have had an extended history of custodial care. To do this SCORE will rely upon volunteer manpower from the Junior Chamber of Commerce, on natural leaders among the boys, and on a system of rewards and incentives. The second goal is to determine whether the Jaycees who spend time with SCORE project boys will be able to teach SCORE procedures to other citizen volunteers. A basic assumption of the Syracuse SCORE approach is that Jaycee volunteers will best learn how to relate to youngsters if they know that in a brief time they will be responsible for teaching others to handle the problems with which they themselves are confronted. At the end of a half year with the boys of SCORE I, it is hoped that the Jaycees, alone, will be able to offer to another organization the financial help and the necessary training to start a second project. In brief, Syracuse SCORE will try to become a self-generating series of projects. Success or failure will be measured by the simple criteria of altered rates of recidivism and the presence or absence of other SCORE programs in the community.

Although new to Syracuse, the idea behind SCORE did not originate here. The first SCORE project—the initials stand for Street Corner Offense Reduction Experiment—was developed by Charles Slack, Harvard University psychologist, who directed such an effort in the Hell's Kitchen area of New York City during 1963. SCORE grew out of Slack's work in Boston, where he found that paid tape-recorded interviews could be dramatically successful in effecting behavioral changes among some delinquent boys. He was invited to New York City by the Clinton Planning Council to see if his ideas and techniques would be effective in a district noted for widespread violence and brutality.

Slack began with the concept of operant conditioning. This is derived from the work of experimental psychologists who have discovered that it is possible to use differential rewards to "program" long chains of behavior "into" laboratory subjects. Slack attempted to take these techniques out of the laboratory and give them a practical application in a social setting.

When he began the project in New York, he was supplied with a list of the 34 "worst" boys in the area: the leaders of gangs, their war lords, and members of clubs such as *The Unknowns, The Spectral Lords, The Assassins,* and *The Egyptian Kings.* The formal goal of the New York City SCORE project was to reduce the incidence of crime among these youngsters as measured by "clean man-days," days when no member of the group was in trouble with the law.

During the first month of the project—February, 1963—the boys had nearly 100 police contacts, an average of three contacts or three days in jail for each SCORE member. By April the total number of contacts had dropped to 10. During July, when New York City usually braces itself for gang fighting, there were no police incidents for these 34 "worst" boys. During the last six months of the project there have been only two arrests—one with no conviction and one still being adjudicated.

How did SCORE accomplish this? Very simply, SCORE posed a series of questions to the youngsters involved: What does it take to keep boys like yourselves out of trouble? What do you need? What do you think will work for you?

The answers came in a variety of forms, but most had to do with specific, concrete, material needs—a place to hang out, things to do, three meals a day, decent clothes, and a job like everyone else. Taking its cue from the boys, SCORE set out to meet these needs. A loft was acquired for a headquarters, trips were taken, a charge account was opened at a men's clothing store, a job-hunt was conducted, and some gifts of money were made directly to boys for food and rent. In a very real sense, the boys were employed by SCORE as researchers seeking effective ways to reach a concrete goal—staying out of trouble with the law. The boys in SCORE set their own goal (clean man-days), proposed ways to meet it, tried out their own ideas as they occurred, and were rewarded for each successful step taken.

The Syracuse SCORE project attempts to build upon Slack's success—but with some important differences. The Syracuse project will be manned and guided by volunteers from the Junior Chamber of Commerce, rather than a trained psychologist. In addition, the professional help of Mr. Weiss will be available only for the first six months of the project. This shift in emphasis, from the professional to the volunteer, is one key variable in Syracuse SCORE.

Other projects have demonstrated that juvenile crime can be reduced, given enough of a particular breed of professional youth workers and the money to pay them. The problem is that well-trained youth workers are now, and will probably continue to be, in short supply. To be practical, communities must find ways to effectively use non-professional manpower. The usefulness of "untrained" people has been demonstrated by Maxwell Jones in England, who worked with the castoffs of mental hospitals and prisons, and by Carl May and the Youth for Service efforts in San Francisco. The same concept is currently being used in the work-projects section of New York City's Mobilization for Youth program. The next step needed is to show that interested citizens of a community can, with a little assistance, not only learn how to become "youth workers" themselves, but that they can teach others the same successful how-to-do-it approaches. In addition, the project must be done economically enough so that most of the youngsters who need this special help can get it.

The timetable for the Syracuse demonstration program begins with the selection of 10 to 15 boys to form SCORE I. These boys will work with Junior Chamber of Commerce volunteers in designing a program of activities to keep youngsters out of trouble. The boys then carry out these activities, using the financial and personal help available from the Jaycees. During this first phase of the project, Mr. Weiss and Geno Andreatta, Center graduate assistant, work with the volunteers as consultants and training leaders. At the end of four months, the boys in SCORE I prepare an account of their project, its current program, and their suggestions as to how the project could be carried to others in need of aid.

After the first half year of the project, the Jaycees will offer to another citizens' organization the help necessary to start Syracuse SCORE II with a second group of boys. The close support of the professional training help is removed at this point, and the Jaycee volunteers trained in SCORE I serve as the consultants and training leaders to the volunteers who are manning SCORE II.

Included in the project design is the support of able consultants from each of the helping professions. Serving for the entire life of the program is a SCORE Project Board, chaired by Jaycee William R. Dean and composed of outstanding local leaders in the fields of medical care, public health, probation, psychiatry, psychology, social work, and law enforcement. These men will be available to the citizen leaders of the SCORE project as sources of authoritative information and as agents in effecting referrals, if this should be necessary.

This project also provides an experience in complex community organization and cooperation. Financial support sought from the Jaycees will be supplemented by the Youth Development Center through matching funds available from the Ford Foundation. Contributions of time and energy are being invested by the Jaycees under president Neil E. Brenneman, by the SCORE leaders, by the citizens on the Project Board, by Center staff members, and by the delinquent boys for whom the program is designed. Incorporated into the project is a deliberate effort at process recording so that a detailed analysis of problems and procedures can be made available to the field.

SCHOOL INTEGRATION PROCESSES: DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION

It has long been known that, given the neighborhood school concept, racially segregated housing patterns in urban areas have resulted in *de facto* school segregation even in northern cities where school segregation has not been sanctioned by law. More recently, the negative impact of such segregation on social, emotional, and intellectual development among the racial minorities involved has become abundantly evident.

DR. JEROME BEKER WITH MRS. CRESTLINE A. LITTLEFIELD, ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT

The United States Supreme Court took account of such evidence and opinion as long ago as 1954 in its unanimous decision declaring school segregation unconstitutional.

Programs to ensure greater racial balance in the public schools have been initiated in an increasing number of cities, and seem destined to accelerate across the country. These changes have frequently been stimulated by state education departments. Here in New York, for example, the State Education Commissioner has issued an order defining "a racially imbalanced school . . . as one having 50 per cent or more Negro pupils enrolled," and advising local school authorities of their responsibility to do "everything within their power, consistent with the principles of sound education, to achieve an equitable balance." Although certain aspects of this order have been challenged in the courts, some such formula seems destined to be implemented. In this connection, the Youth Development Center has drafted a demonstration proposal that could, hopefully, make available to the field a systematic presentation of what to expect and how to plan effectively for public school integration. Funds are currently being sought for this study, with the acceptance of a grant contingent upon the developing plans of the Syracuse Board of Education.

The proposed study is not concerned with whether *de facto* segregation is good or bad; rather, it views pending integration as a reality to be handled with maximum benefit to the youngsters, the adults, and the communities concerned. It is recognized that school integration involves more than bringing Negro and white children together in the same classroom. Not only are racial prejudices likely to be deep-seated, but there also tend to be vast cultural and educational differences, born of decades of segregated living, between most urban Negro children and their white counterparts. Most simply stated, the fundamental question is, how can we help youngsters learn in a setting where those who have "learned to learn" are mixed with those who have not?

The demonstration-research program will attempt to (1) identify and classify the problems that may arise in the integration process, (2) identify systematically the effects of integration on the attitudes and behavior of the people involved, (3) demonstrate effective ways of handling the problems, (4) evaluate the effectiveness of the procedures applied, and (5) disseminate findings concerning both problems and procedures for possible use in other settings. The program seeks to promote the development of positive attitudes and behavior, comfortable interracial interaction, and an optimal educational environment in the newly-integrated demonstration schools.

To help foster these ends, outside consultants experienced in facilitating change will offer special services to principals, teachers, students, parents, and neighborhood groups. These consultants, or "change agent teams," will include specialists in school administration, curriculum, mental health, and community service. New educational programs and other modifications in the school and community setting will be introduced. The focus of the planned demonstration, however, would be less on specific program content than on the *process* by which change agent teams can initiate and implement innovations that result in more effective educational programs to meet a specific, critical need.

Social change is seldom easy. It creates tension and, possibly, conflict. This is clearly of concern when culturally disadvantaged Negro children are placed in predominantly white schools whose pupils are usually less deprived and culturally very different. The necessary adjustments and accompanying stresses can lead either to disorganization and turmoil or to growth and new strength for our society. The proposed study is designed to assess the impact of the change along a variety of dimensions and to contribute methods to stimulate the development of more effective integrated education in public schools throughout the country.

CONSULTATION SERVICES

Leslie T. Wilkins, The Home Office, England, confers with Center members at a staff seminar.

CONSULTATION SERVICES

The Youth Development Center's community service efforts can be classified into two major categories. The first is composed of those programs and services initiated by the Center to meet an expressed community need and which are gradually incorporated into the structure of an on-going agency or which turn into self-supporting endeavors. Examples here are the Madison Area Project, which was conceived, organized, and initially financed by the Center; the Central Registry of Juvenile Offenders, started by the Center in cooperation with the Onondaga County Youth Board and now supported by the Youth Board and the County Probation Department; and the One-Parent Family Council, an organization launched by the Center and the College of Home Economics that is on its way to becoming self-sufficient. Accounts of these projects will be found in earlier sections of this report.

The second category is composed of consultation services to a variety of local, regional, and national concerns, and operated under a variety of arrangements. Consultations may range from a two-hour session with local Boy Scout leaders, to a one-day school visitation, to a semi-permanent working relationship with the Berkshire Farm for Boys. The most frequent type of advisory service is that given by an individual staff person in his capacity as "visiting specialist." In addition, many Center people are active in a wide range of organizations that make use of their special talents.

Locally, Center people are associated with the Syracuse Citizens' Council for Urban Renewal, the Syracuse Area Council of Churches, Dunbar Center, Huntington Family Centers, the Citizen's Committee for the Family Court, the Planned Parenthood Center, the Onondaga County Youth Board, the Syracuse Committee on Racial Equality, and the Urban League:

Beyond the local community, Center staff members are consultants to a number of projects sponsored by the President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime, serve on the Delinquency Grants Review Committee of the National Institute of Mental Health, the Advisory Panel of the National Committee on Employment of Youth, and with the 4-H Club Federal Extension Service. In addition, they have been engaged as advisors to the Inter-American Housing and Planning Center of the Pan American Union and to the Urban Renewal and Housing Administration of Puerto Rico.

As an institution, the Youth Development Center has developed a close working relationship with several area organizations. Three of these continuing services that have occupied a major share of staff time are detailed in the following pages.

MAYOR'S COMMISSION FOR YOUTH

In October, 1962, Syracuse became one of 12 cities in the country to receive a planning grant from the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. This grant is administered by the Mayor's Commission for Youth, a citizen's group charged with developing a comprehensive plan for the control and reduction of delinquency and related youth problems. President's Committee funds will support this endeavor for a period of 15 months, when an action program proposal will be submitted to federal, state, and local governments and to private foundations.

The Youth Development Center played a major role in drafting sections of the initial planning proposal and continues to take an active part in day-to-day functioning of the Commission as it develops baselines for a community-wide attack on youth problems. Dr. Irwin Deutscher, Center Director, is one of two associate directors of the project, and six other staff members are serving on the various Commission task forces. By far the most challenging aspect of Center involvement, however, is its role as the research arm of the Mayor's Commission. Professor Robert H. Hardt is serving as the Commission's research director, aided by Center assistants Sandra J. Peterson and George E. Bodine.

Commission research is focusing on obtaining an inventory of youth problems in three low-income areas of the city in which young people have high rates of delinquency, low academic achievement, and high rates of early school leaving. The major data collection instrument is the Youth Opinion Poll, developed by Professor Hardt and administered to some 1,850 junior high school students. The Poll is designed to provide baseline measures, diagnostic indicators, and descriptive characteristics of the target population. Data from the Poll, a section of which is designed as a self-report on rule violations, is supplemented by interviews with samples of the adult and teenage population of the three action areas.

Further details on findings from the Youth Opinion Poll and on other Center activities for the Mayor's Commission are given in other parts of this report; see especially the sections on "Norms and Behavior of Junior High School Students" and "Conference on Self-Report Techniques."

BERKSHIRE FARM INSTITUTE FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH

The Berkshire Farm for Boys at Canaan, New York, is a non-sectarian, interracial, residential school for the treatment and rehabilitation of delinquent boys. It has accumulated over 75 years of experience in its field; it has a well-balanced staff representing the various professional disciplines; it has established an excellent reputation in the Northeast; and it has a Board of Directors eager to take responsibility in expanding its contribution to the juvenile correctional field. Members of the Board approached the Youth Development Center in the fall of 1960 for a series of consultations that resulted in the establishment of a research and training center to serve the institutional field.

A committee from the Youth Development Center observed the Berkshire Farm operations, consulted with staff members, arranged a two-day conference of outstanding leaders in juvenile correction to explore the research and training potentials, and submitted its recommendations in August of 1961. The Berkshire Institute for Training and Research, Inc. was formally launched in January, 1963.

As proposed, the Institute will offer training to persons planning to work in the juvenile delinquency field, will provide field work for graduate students in psychology, psychiatry, social work, sociology, and special education, and will conduct research on the overall problems of delinquency as viewed from an institutional setting. The untimely death of Mr. J. Donald Coldren, the Farm's executive director and a guiding force behind the Institute, has understandably slowed development plans. Mr. Abraham G. Novick, former superintendent of the New York State Training School for Girls in Hudson, was appointed executive director in October, 1963. Three Center staff members—Dr. Irwin Deutscher, Dr. Finla G. Crawford, and Dr. Lee J. Cary—serve on the Institute Board and are assisting Mr. Novik in program development.

YOUTH OPPORTUNITIES UNLIMITED

Junior high school students with plenty of promise but low motivation are the special concern of a Syracuse group of volunteers called Youth Opportunities Unlimited. The men and women of Y.O.U. serve as year-round counselors and friends to selected seventh, eighth, and ninth graders recommended for special attention by school guidance counselors. In addition, Y.O.U. sponsors two special events each year: a weekend "Horizons Unlimited" summer conference at Cazenovia College and a midwinter one-day conference on the Syracuse University campus. Sessions stress vocational guidance, career planning, and a general "you can do it" atmosphere of success and achievement for culturally disadvantaged youngsters. The Youth Development Center assists Y.O.U. members in program planning, in clerical and administrative duties, and in communications to children, parents, and guidance counselors. Individual staff members also serve as program participants and conference discussion leaders and as year-round advisors to Y.O.U. student members.

CONSULTANTS TO THE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER

Just as many organizations look to the Center for advice and recommendations, so the Center actively seeks consultation services from authorities in various fields. Since its beginning days when the Center turned to Dr. Lloyd Ohlin as an advisor on theoretical orientations to delinquency research, rosters of well-known names have appeared on the agenda of Center staff meetings. Fritz Redl, Carl Withers, Margaret Mead, Preston Wilcox, Arnold Rose, Louis Lomax, Henry Riecken, Daniel Schreiber, Benjamin B. Ringer, Edmund Burbank, Campbell G. Murphy, Frank Riessman, and Patricia Sexton are among the many American specialists who have shared their interests and talents with the Center.

From abroad have come Guido Martinotti, Italian sociologist; Leslie Wilkins and Jean Nunn from the Home Office, London; Terence Morris of the London School of Economics; Tamotsu Kondo, director of the Welfare and Labor Departments, Nagasaki Prefectural Government; Toru Yamaguchi, Probation Officer for the Kyoto National Family Court; Alec G. Dickson, Director of Voluntary Service Overseas, Royal Commonwealth Society; Police Captain Serafin Quesada of Peru; Margot Jeffereys of the London School of Hygiene, and a host of other vistors.

These national and international contacts are invaluable in keeping the Youth Development Center in touch with developing social science activities, in probing areas of mutual interest, and in contributing both breadth and depth to the Center's research and service programs.

YOUTH DEVELOPMENT CENTER STAFF | 1963

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

Irwin Deutscher, Director; Associate Professor, Sociology

Lee J. Cary, Associate Director; Assistant Professor, Social Work

Finla G. Crawford, Advisory Counsel; Syracuse University Vice Chancellor Emeritus

Elizabeth J. Thompson, Associate in Community Relations

Vito L. Nardozza, Executive Assistant

Crestline A. Littlefield, Administrative Assistant

PROFESSIONAL STAFF

Jerome Beker, Senior Research Associate

Seymour S. Bellin, Senior Research Associate; Associate Professor, Sociology

George E. Bodine, Research Associate

Carolyn Comings, Research Associate

John Dopyera, Research Associate

Thomas J. Fararo, Research Associate; Assistant Professor, Sociology

Blanche Geer, Senior Research Associate; Associate Professor, Sociology and Education

Warren C. Haggstrom, Senior Research Associate; Assistant Professor, Social Work

Robert H. Hardt, Senior Research Associate; Assistant Professor, Sociology

Dagny K. Henderson, Research Associate

David E. Hunt, Senior Research Associate; Associate Professor, Psychology

Louis Kriesberg, Senior Research Associate; Associate Professor, Sociology

S. M. Miller, Senior Research Associate; Professor, Sociology

Helen Icken Safa, Senior Research Associate; Assistant Professor, Anthropology

Morris H. Sunshine, Senior Research Associate; Assistant Professor, Sociology

Morton O. Wagenfeld, Research Associate; Lecturer, Social Work

Melvin L. Weiss, Senior Research Associate; Lecturer, Anthropology

Charles V. Willie, Senior Research Associate; Associate Professor, Sociology; currently on leave of absence to President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime

Bernice M. Wright, Community Services; Assistant Professor, Family Living and Child Development, Home Economics

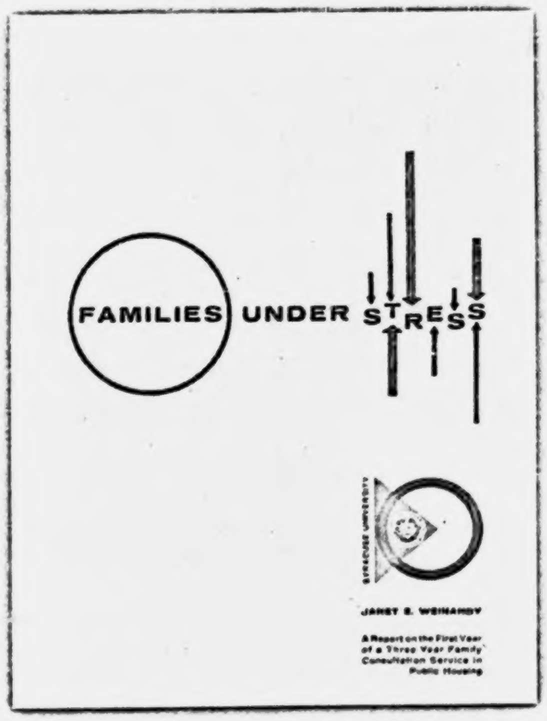
GRADUATE ASSISTANTS

A. Geno Andreatta (Anthropology)
Herrington J. Bryce (Economics)
Laurence T. Cagle (Sociology)
Daniel Davis(History)
Thomas G. Fox (Economics)
John J. Gargan (Political Science)
William Halliwell (Anthropology)
Charles F. Halverson, Jr. (Psychology)
John W. Haas (Social Science)
Jay M. Land (Psychology)
James R. McIntosh (Sociology)
Sandra J. Peterson (Sociology)
Joan T. Weber (Sociology)
Roland Werner (Sociology)

RESEARCH ASSISTANTS AND TECHNICIANS

- Julie Alexander
- Virginia E. Burlingame
- Alice Z. Chapin
- Carlos E. Chardon
- Sally Z. Cornwall
- George A. Freskos
- Rachel Giangiobbe
- Jeanne R. Glowan
- Ira E. Harrison
- Virginia D. Lindeman
- Linda Morrow
- Beverly A. McGarry
- Maria S. Pappalardo
- Mary Reibson
- Betty Saleem
- Roy Shore
- Jordan Tannenbaum

The Youth Development Center staff listed above is supported by a clerical and office group of ten persons, and augmented at various times during the year by a field staff of thirty interviewers, coders, and technicians.


FAMILIES UNDER STRESS
SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
JANET E. WEINANDY
A Report on the First Year of a Three Year Family Consultation Service in Public Housing

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY
WORK CAMPS FOR YOUNG OFFENDERS

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FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF THE YOUTH DEVELOPM [illegible] CENTER
THE FIRST [illegible] E YEARS
JULY 1, 195 [illegible] 30, 1963

The Ford Foundation granted $740,000 to Syracuse University in July, 19 [illegible] establish the Youth Development Center for a period of approximately five yea [illegible] n 1962, the Ford Foundation made a second grant of $651,000 for the continued [illegible] eration of the Center. In addition, some funds have been made available by Ford d [illegible] ing the first five years to support specific projects. Though the Ford Foundation continues to be the major source of support, the Center has increasingly broadened [illegible] inancial base through grants and contract research with other organizations as well as receiving annual support from the Syracuse University budget. The source, amount, and general description of the grants and contract research awarded the Center from July, 1958 through June, 1963 are listed below. In many instances, these funds have not been completely expended and are currently financing part of the Center's program. The second Ford grant is not included in this although funds from this grant do appear as the support for three specific projects: Indicators of Developmental Change, Application of Net Theory, and the Workshop for Teachers of the Culturally Deprived.

SOURCE	GENERAL DESCRIPTION	AMOUNT
Ford Foundation	Grant to Establish the Center	$ 740,000
Ford Foundation	Public Housing and Social Mobility	187,500
Social Security Administration	Fatherless Families and Housing	120,522
Mayor's Commission for Youth	Study of Youth Problems in Syracuse	66,839
Ford Foundation	Indicators of Developmental Change	39,000
National Science Foundation	Comparative Social Mobility	37,900
Ford Foundation	Madison Area Project	36,000
Ford Foundation	Application of Net Theory	27,300
New York State Division for Youth	Experimental Youth and Work Program	26,400
Social Security Administration	The World of Work	10,360
National Institutes of Health	Family Structure and Public Housing	4,200
Ford Foundation	Workshop for Teachers of the Culturally Deprived	2,552
Carnegie Corporation	Study of Undergraduate Student Culture	11,075
Ford Foundation	Study of the New York House of Refuge	2,500
	TOTAL	$1,312,148

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